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Address all inquiries to:

Veronica P. Stephen, Editor
Eastern Education Journal
Eastern Illinois University
600 Lincoln Ave
Charleston IL 61920-3099

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College of Education and Professional Studies
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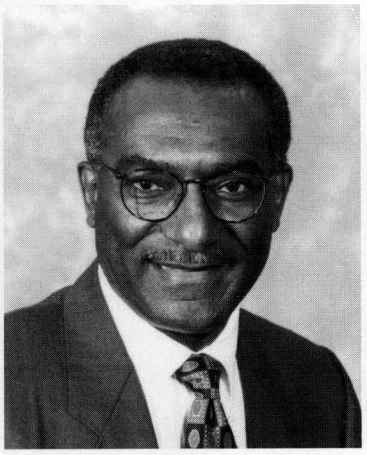
From the Editor ...

As we approach the millennium, we, along with the world audience, are anticipating many new and wonderful things - learning standards for students that are free of bias, but challenging and fair; teaching standards that are both demanding and equitable, yet fair; programs in higher education that encourage diversity, emphasize unity, and promote collaboration, rather than divisiveness; reforms in school finance that meet the needs of children, not political parties or certain sectors; courses that integrate, rather than segment, topics, so that children (and adults) can learn by putting all of the pieces of the puzzle together, not merely a corner or two; more effective communication between and among local, state, and federal education agencies; schools using textbooks copyrighted after 1990 (at least); preservice and inservice teacher training that is relevant and substantive; and of course, "a computer for every child in every school." Is this too much to hope for, too utopian?!

While we can only hope that some of these ideas become realities, we must realize that change is a very slow process, beset with obstacles from one side of the aisle to the next. Traditionally, change occurs in only tiny increments, often unnoticed by the populace. Year after year, these minuscule fragments float around, seeking "home" and ultimately coalesce into something we recognize as "change." At Eastern Illinois University, productive change is the heart of progress in various colleges and departments, as well as the university as a whole. During this past year, change, accompanied by welcoming winds, has visited the campus of Eastern Illinois University often. In every respect, we are becoming more and more prepared for the millennium.

Last spring, we were exceptionally pleased to welcome Teshome Abebe as our new Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs. Replacing retiring incumbent Terry Weidner, Abebe, of Big Rapids, Michigan, began his position on July 1, 1998, noting that: "it is with the highest degree of humility and anticipation that I accept this responsibility - the responsibility of service to the faculty, the students, the university community, the president, and the board." As former Provost and Vice President for academic affairs at Ferris State University, Abebe was highly instrumental in turning financial deficits into lucrative assets. His leadership enabled Ferris State University to gain several off-campus centers and fueled the creation of the Center for Teaching, Learning, and Faculty Development - an enterprise devoted to revitalization and enhancement of faculty renewal and development, especially in terms of technology. He also initiated a University Marketing Plan to improve enrollment and a "fast-track program which helped high school students take college courses on campus. In addition, Abebe sought and acquired technological resource funding for software, classroom instruction, and networking.



Teshome Abebe
Provost and Vice President
for Academic Affairs

Abebe holds a doctorate in economics from Northern Illinois University, as well as a master's and a bachelor's degree in economics from Illinois State University. He has also served as Associate Provost and Vice President for Academic and Student Affairs and Dean of the Business School at the University of Southern Colorado. Further, he has taught at Ferris State University, University of Southern California, Eastern New Mexico University, Northern Illinois University, and the College of DuPage.

Just a few months ago, we were also extremely pleased to welcome Carol Diann Surles as the new President of Eastern Illinois University. Surles, former President of Texas Woman's University in Denton, Texas, is the eighth EIU president, and the first woman to hold this position full-time. Barbara Hill (former EIU Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs) served as acting president for a brief period in 1992.Surles replaced David L. Jorns (President since 1992) and assumed the presidency in March of 1999.

Carol Diann Surles
President
Eastern Illinois University

Surles was chosen from among 52 nominees in a national search. In accepting her position, Surles commented: œl look forward to bringing energy and a record of success to Easern . . . and looking forward to returning to a traditional, residential campus with a tremendous sense of community." Prior to serving as President of Texas Woman's University, Surles served as both Vice President for Administration and Business Affairs and Visiting Executive in Residence at California State University (Hayward); Vice President for Academic Affairs and Professor of Management at Jackson State University in Mississippi; and Vice Chancellor for Administration at the University of Michigan in Flint. She also has held administrative positions at the University of Central Florida in Orlando.

Surles holds a doctorate in education from the University of Michigan, a master's degree in counseling from Chapman College in Orange, CA, and a bachelor's in psychology from Fisk University, Nashville, TN. She has also participated in post-graduate management and executive programs and seminars at the University of Michigan, as well as in seminars for university presidents at Harvard University.

This past year, we were further invigorated by new developments at the Robert G. Buzzard Hall, home of the College of Education and Professional Studies. Inside, beautiful wooden settees (topped with colorful cushions), cozy study tables (accompanied by comfortable chairs), side tables, numerous wooden benches, and "real-life" trees acquired space and began to provide sanctuary. Outside, shrubs, small trees, large urns, and a modern sculpture created life. Both the inside and outside of Bluzzard Hall are somewhat reminiscent of Frank Lloyd Wright – the earth tones in the settee cushions, the "Prairie" style roofs, the slate flooring, the "Mission" type furniture, the simplicity of ironwork in railings and banisters, and the cleanliness of outside pots and urns. The interplay of simplicity between the earth and the world is accented by hugh atrium windows, subtle shadings in paint and furniture, as well as an overall sense of continuity and harmony.

In addition, the newly renovated Robert G. Bluzzard Hall includes a modern sculpture, one that melds the "Prairie" type simplicity with a call for the future. Created by Edward McCullough of Cissna Prk, Illinois the stainless steel sculpture – "Meridian III" – is nearly 14 feet in diameter, 10 feet tall, and weighs approximately 3,000 pounds. The sculpture, located at the northwest entrance of Bluzzard Hall on South Seventh Street, was unveiled as part of Eastern Illinois University's Homecoming festivities. The university, through the Illinois Capital Development Board's Art-in-Architecture Program, commissioned McCullough a Professor of Art at Columbia College in Chicago, to create the sculpture. In responding to queries about fashioning this art piece, McCullough remarked:

"I want this sculpture to invite people to walk inside it, to be a part of its larger whole. Although some of its forms exceed human scale, they're still accessible to distance one can reach. Also, forms may appear to be opening out from or returning to their nearby open spaces simply by the viewer taking a step or two in any direction. That's what I'm after: arcs, circles, or variants thereof, that stake out boundaries and make connections with what isn't there, which will always be an open space where one is standing. It's from these concerns that the title derives, and an inherent part of all the sculptures in the MERIDIAN SERIES comes from the Dakota Indians: 'The year is a circle around the world.'"

McCullough's works can be found throughout the Midwest, including colleges of education and municipal buildings. His "Meridian III" sculpture, located outside the Robert G. Buzzard Hall, almost brings to mind the marvelous pieces created by Henry Moore, especially one that is situated just outside the doors of the library in Columbus, Indiana. Both Moore and McCullough sculptures, in terms of overall design, make significant statements with respect to simplicity, purity, and unity. In addition, both sculptures, with regard to diverse aspects of setting and overall schemes of learning, tend to share common elements that invite viewers to become participants. They suggest just a bit more . . . touch me, become part of me, come inside and visit with me.

Change and renewal at Eastern? Definitely! Constant, YES! Challenging, YES! We ALL look forward to the new millennium!

Meridian III

In This Issue ...

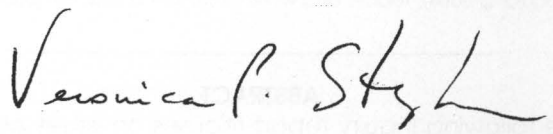
In this issue, we look at change and diverse change processes through different perspectives, different research methodologies, and different topics. In the lead article - "Change and Renewal in Schools of Education: Roles of Key Players" - Donna Cole and Charles Ryan focus on issues of environmental change and renewal as they relate to implementation of the Goodlad postulates into teacher education and school based partnerships. Next, Bette Bergeron and Linda Hus in - "Portfolios and the Nontraditional Student: Implications for Teacher Education Programs" - analyze the needs of nontraditional students with regard to the development of a portfolio assessment requirement in a teacher preparation program at a large commuter campus. In "Engaged Learing: The Changing Role of Teachers and Students in a Technological Society," Bruce Barker and Michael Dickson reflect on the impact of technology in terms of interactive learning, curriculum integration, and engaged learning.

Michael Richardson, James Smith, and Cathy Jording then review decades of school reform initiatives and sift through the historical, social, organizational, and political contexts of reforms and their results in "Educational Reform: Exhibition and Regression." The following article by Brenda Howard, Michael Graham, and Phillip Messner - "Comparison of Teacher Perceptions of School Climate Variables Between Career Ladder and Non-Career Ladder Schools" - examine school climate variables in terms of job performance and satisfaction in different school settings. Jerry Whitworth, in "Seven Steps to Successful Change," describes seven components that are essential to educational change at the school level and provides recommendations for other educators interested in implementing change in their own schools.

In "A Case Study Comparison of Compulsory and Voluntary Community Service Programs," Thomas Deering and Thomas Cavenagh investigate service learning projects at a midwestern college and tender suggestions for institutions of higher learning considering adding community service programs to their curricula. The next article by Patricia Belleville - "The Influence of Knowledge on the Building of Conceptual Models" - explores the idea of knowledge-based categorization. Bradley Greenspan, in "The Effects of Student-Directed Learning on Motivation: Creating Relevancy in a Secondary Science Classroom," focuses on changing the negative perceptions students hold with regard to the science discipline via student-directed learning. Then, Judy Barford provides an overview of a special project involving a professional development school and a university in "Project WOW: Rivers Connecting Communities of Learners."

This issue also includes an update on the Stockman Institute, pilot programs, the School of Adult and Continuing Education, and School/University partnerships.

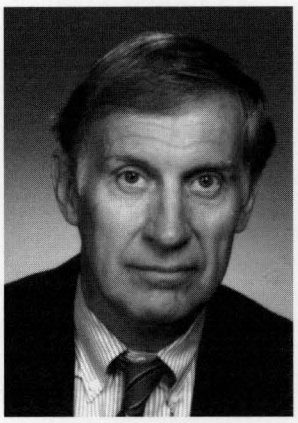
We hope you enjoy this edition and, as always, we look forward to hearing from you, especially as we approach the new millennium.



Change and Renewal In Schools of Education: Roles of Key Players

Donna J. Cole
Charles W. Ryan

Donna J. Cole is Professor of Education in the College of Education and Human Services at Wright State University, Dayton, OH. She has worked in K-12 systems in inner-city Cleveland, Chagrin Falls, Ohio; West Virginia, and Utah. Cole has been at Wright State University since 1987 and coordinates the foundation phase of the teacher education program. Specializations include cultural foundations and assessment, particularly portfolios. She co-chaired the Ohio Consortium for Portfolio Development which collaborated with Stanford University's Teacher Assessment Project, directed by Lee Shulman. She also was an associate with the National Network of Education, led by John Goodlad. Cole was instrumental in developing a partnership with Fairborn Public Schools; as a result, the Professional School Teaching training program placed interns in classrooms and initiated a number of collaborative training activities with school staff. In her current assignment as Professor and Director of the Professional Educators Program, Cole continues to contribute to the professional literature via articles, chapters in books, and teacher and student curricular guides), teach, and work for reform in teacher education.



Charles W. Ryan is Professor of Education in the College of Education and Human Services at Wright State University, Dayton, OH. For the past twenty years, Ryan has served in a variety of university posts and assignments that have required teaching and administrative responsibilities. From the role of Department Chairperson, he progressed to Assistant Dean and Dean of a major teacher education unit. His current assignment requires involvement at both the national and local levels of education and the development of strong undergraduate and graduate programs. In addition, he has continued to conduct research as it relates to faculty productivity, organizational analysis, and career development theory. Ryan's professional interests are wide-ranging and his most recent book, *Career Counseling: A Developmental Approach*, with Robert Drummond, has been adopted by a number of counselor training programs. Ryan has published many articles dealing with portfolios as an alternative assessment process for students, faculty, and administrators in the public/private school sector.

ABSTRACT

The following inquiry report focuses on issues of environmental change and renewal as they relate to implementation of the Goodlad postulates into teacher education and school based partnerships. The group of universities participating in this study are members of the National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER). This 1996-97 study addressed a number of qualitative variables which relate to issues of implementation as determined by institutional mission, organizational climate, faculty receptivity, and commitment. The findings of this study suggest institutional leaders such as the Dean or Department Chair are critical to renewal efforts. Also, faculty commitment and willingness to change are required in the establishment of off-campus sites for the delivery of teacher education that involve school personnel as teaching colleagues. The findings suggest a significant number of faculty continue to resist moving traditional four-year programs to off-campus sites as required in true collaborative partnerships. In summary, respondents in this study believe renewal partnerships and the type of institutional rewards used are critical to success. In fact, the role of governance councils was cited as a critical factor in the success of renewal efforts.

INTRODUCTION

The National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER) has assumed a leading national role in influencing teacher education and public schools to form partnerships for renewal. The antecedents of this renewal thrust are indebted to the conceptual work of John Goodlad in a number of writings. For example, A Place Called School (1984), Educational Renewal (1994), and Teachers For Our Nation's Schools (1990) provided both theoretical and practical solutions for renewing both schools and teacher education. The Goodlad writings lend both a theoretical and moral dimension to the need for renewal. Much of our discussion on site-based determinants of implementation resulted from observation of renewal at 16 sites.

Conceptualizing and measuring the renewal process was considered important for several reasons. First, unless the internal or institutional process of renewal was carefully examined little substantive change would be found. Second, the theoretical dimensions and need for renewal were fashioned largely at the university and federal level. Also, a number of state initiatives have supported alternative approaches to renewal. We have a problem in identifying implementation renewal activities since there are no agreed upon national standards existing. In this study we relied upon the 19 postulates generat-

ed by Goodlad (1994) to structure the investigation of renewal efforts at the 16 sites.

The purpose of this study was to identify factors fundamental to renewal efforts in teacher education at NNER sites. In addition, governance, curriculum, fiscal, faculty, and off campus based issues that interface in renewal efforts need clarified.

METHOD

The complex nature of this study reflects the complexity of renewal in 16 diverse universities. In addition to the open-ended survey questionnaire, a number of items were included to force a fixed response to selected items. The respondent groups consisted of university administrators and faculty at each site. The survey was designed to determine implementation strategies, reactions, and concerns at the participating institutions. Determinants of implementation included change processes, renewal efforts, institutional context variables, and perceived effectiveness of efforts to date.

We were particularly interested in the extent to which educational renewal in teacher education and organizational climate were implemented at each site. For example, changes in mission, organizational climate, faculty receptivity, and commitment were targets of analysis. The survey questionnaire was employed to collect information on the determinants of implementation and process used at each site. Qualitative studies are usually nonmanipulative, that is, they tend to study perceptions, environments, and interactions as intial entities according to Lincoln and Guba (1985). Our purpose was to study the perceptual view of renewal change by the key players and to make professional judgements about the quality of these efforts. Since the process of change was under the control of each university, it was assumed that a self-generated change should produce a profitable qualitative study (Patton, 1996). The study examined perceived effectiveness of implementation in establishing renewal goals, specific difficulties, distinctive changes, faculty/student commitment, establishment of student cohort groups, ownership of faculty, and students. Naturally, process dimension analysis requires all respondents to have (1) knowledge and understanding of educational renewal; (2) expected role/behavior related to renewal; and (3) value internalization, as determined by analyzed responses to 14 Likert-type renewal opinion items.

Divided into five parts, the survey questionnaire was distributed in November 1996 to each institutional team at the national NNER annual meeting. The survey questionnaire consisted of five parts: Part I. Field Experiences; Part II. Institutional Factors; Part III. Instructional Context and Curriculum; Part IV. Leadership for Change; and Part V. Changes at the University/College. The sample consisted of 16 educational institutions invited to participate in the *National Network for Educational Renewal* established in 1986 (Goodlad, 1994). A total of 11 of16 institutions responded as of May 1, 1997.

RESULTS

This section summarizes the findings on the implementation/process of educational renewal for the 11 responding sites. Given there were only 11 responding sites, formal measures of association were avoided and frequency counts as well as qualitatively based analyses of tendency and pattern were used. Measurement of the process dimensions related to institutional factors, context, curriculum, and leadership for change relied on questionnaires completed by the faculty and institutional administrators. In sum, we believe the educational renewal, as defined by Goodlad (1994), must be carefully examined and documented, if not; then critics of renewal might label it a "movement"' and think that no real changes in teacher education or partnership with public schools have occurred.

The process of educational renewal manifests along six dimensions: (1) roles of key players; (2) knowledge/understanding of leaders; (3) faculty acceptance; (4) organizational alignments; (5) budget; and (6) power/influence. The level of change on these six dimensions is viewed as a product of complex political forces assumed to exist in educational organizations. A number of factors operated to facilitate or to impede the implementation of educational renewal in the 11 sites studied in this evaluation. Although the comments that follow are only applicable to the 11 sites under study, the researchers have confidence that the observations reported below can be generalized beyond the sample. The following comments are organized around items from Parts II, III, and V of the survey instrument.

A qualitative examination of the data is reported in this section, both qualifiable and impressionistic. In Table 1 we note that organizational constraints hindered renewal efforts, but faculty appeared commit-

TABLE 1

Analysis of NNER Universities Responses To Change and Renewal Questions

Item	Responses: Definitely 1	Somewhat 2	Not at All 3	No Answer 4
1. A. Political and organizational restraints compromise renewal efforts	6	4	0	1
B. NNER university faculty committed to renewal.	5	6	0	0
C. There are specific difficulties that challenge progress.	5	6	0	0
2. A. A unique program name/focus was developed by faculty.	9	1	1	0
3. A. Students are developing a sense of "shared ownership."	3	7	1	0
B. Students are developing a sense of rhe renewal effort.	4	6	1	0
C. Proposal for new organizational structure for teacher education program has emerged.	4	7	0	0
5. The renewal program is distinctive–faculty and students feel identification with and ownership	3	6	1	1

Note: N = 11 sites responded by May 1, 1997

ted to change processes. In short, attitudes toward change were positive and participants cited a strong sense of ownership. Both faculty and students were developing a sense of "shared" ownership and a commitment to renewal. All sites had entered the renewal process at the invitation of NNER central staff and "early adapters" of the philosophy and mission encountered fewer problems in implementing new practices. In general, the 11 sites had climates supportive of renewal.

In Table 2 we examine the effects of key leaders on systematic change as sustaining and motivating forces in renewal. To understand what drives renewal the characteristics of site personnel must be examined and identified. We note that key leaders provide vision, imagination, and creativity, coupled with energy and commitment. The respondents state that the dean, department chair, faculty, principal, and public school faculty are the essential leaders for renewal. Less important were special task forces as an ingredient in the renewal process. However, all participants must be provided the opportunity to process the dialogue of change through planned and informal discussions.

TABLE 2

NNER Universities Responses on Leaders for Renewal

Item	Responses: Definitely 1	Somewhat 2	Not at All 3	No Answer 4
A. Dean	10	0	1	0
B. Department Chair	11	0	0	0
C. Special Task Force	5	5	0	1
D. Individual Faculty	10	1	0	0
E. School Superintendent	7	4	0	0
F. Principal	10	1	0	0
G. Public School Faculty	11	0	0	0

Note: N = 11 Institutions

The responses also suggest that leadership for renewal relates to the vision, imagination, energy, and encouragement provided by deans, chairpersons, and key faculty members. Coupled with these factors is the need to target resources, i.e. funds, secretarial support, travel, and stipends in support of renewal (See Table 3). In addition, our data infers that faculty pride, risk taking, and management of change were evident at these sites. There was a leadership expectation that faculty would commit to renewal and work with schools to develop active partnerships (See Table 4). However, it will take several years to overcome faculty resistance to change, if efforts to date are indicative of PDS development. Seven of 11 responding sites had made substantive changes in the teacher education program and developmed agreements with renewal schools that have taken up to two years.

In relation to obstacles impeding renewal, the data state that budget constraints, resistance to delivering teacher education in school sites, and faculty allegiance to traditional campus based instruction hindered renewal. A number of factors surfaced in relation to teaching university courses at school

TABLE 3

NNER Universities Responses on Leadership Factors

Item	Responses: Definitely 1	Somewhat 2	Not at All 3	No Answer 4
To What Extent Do Leaders				
2. A. Provide vision, imagination	6	3	0	2
B. Demonstrate energy	7	2	0	2
C. Provide encouragement, support resources	7	2	0	2

Note: N = 11 Institutions

TABLE 4

NNER Universities Responses on Factors that Enable Faculty and Leaders to Effect Change

Item	Responses: Definitely 1	Somewhat 2	Not at All 3	No Answer 4
A. FACULTY:				
* Faculty have pride in renewal effort.	8	1	1	1
* Faculty are willing to take risks.	7	2	0	2
* Faculty can manage change and uncertainty	7	2	0	2
*Faculty want leaders to succeed.	7	2	1	1
B. FORMAL LEADERS:				
* Have expectation of Faculty Leadership		2	0	
* Create a context for change.	7	2	0	2
* Keep all well informed about status of change process	6	3	0	2
* Create incentives and distribute rewards.	8	1	1	1
* Help people "Catch Fire."	6	4	0	1
* Encourage all faculty to participate.	6	4	0	1

Note: N = 11

sites. For example, altering behavioral habits, poor facilities, lack of instructional equipment, travel to sites, and school environment interruptions were cited. However, when viewed as an opportunity the renewal efforts provided a chance to demonstrate accountability for public education. The criticism that higher education institutions devote little time and effort to assisting K- 12 public schools with curriculum or staff development issues does not appear valid in these 11 sites. Analysis of respondent comments suggest a compelling professional self interest pervaded clinical faculty's action to assist the targeted public school sites achieve renewal in a partnership mode (See Table 5).

A number of factors continue to plague renewal efforts in these 11 sites. We note continued concern about program conceptual coherence, for example traditional 4 year on-campus program versus non-traditional 5th year or professional year programs after receiving the bachelor's degree. A significant number of faculty continue to covertly resist modifi-

TABLE 5
NNER Universities Responses
Factors Impacting Program Renewal Efforts: Obstacles vs. Opportunities

Item	Responses: Obstacle 1	Opportunity 2	Not Relevant 3	No Answer 4
A. Increasing criticism of and higher demands for accountability.	3	8	0	0
B. Stringent budget constraints.	11	0	0	0
C. Proliferation of academic specialties courses.	4	2	5	0
D. University faculty are not comfortable doing "ED" in schools.	9	0	1	1
E. School faculty do not feel accepted	7	2	2	0
F. Faculty have allegiance to their discipline vs. a renewal agenda.	9	1	1	0

Note: N = 11 Institutions

cation of traditional 4 year degree programs. The data in Table 6 indicate responses from both an obstacle and opportunity perspective. An important note is that 5 sites view renewal as an opportunity to deliver teacher education in new configurations. We are perplexed as to why 2 sites do not feel accepted in the public schools. The problem might center on "breaking the mold of habitual behavior," i.e. teaching down the hall from one's office. Altering the comfort zone of individuals is generally met with resistant behavior (See Table 6).

TABLE 6
NNER Universities Responses
Factors Impacting Program Renewal Efforts

Item	Responses: Obstacle 1	Opportunity 2	Not Relevant 3	No Answer 4
G. Faculty recognize that it is vital to have a conceptuality coherent program.	7	4	0	0
H. A significant portion of faculty is resisting renewal saying "if it's not brok don't fix it."	7	4	0	0
I. Faculty feel very protective of own turf.	4	7	0	0
J. University faculty are not comfortable doing "ED" in schools.	1	5	4	1
K. School faculty do not feel accepted. resources	2	8	1	0

Note: N = 11 Institutions

In addition to quantitative data a number of items on the survey instrument permitted open comment. The process of renewal manifests itself along essentially five dimensions: (1) changes in tangible resources (facilities, staff, equipment); (2) changes in intangible resources (staffing, patterns, organizational alignments); (3) changes in knowledge and understanding on the part of faculty, administration, and students; (4) changes in implementator role/behavior; and (5) value internalization or attitudes toward change. The following comments provide an index of perceptions toward renewal.

DISCUSSION

The respondents believe the renewal effort had an impact on teacher education governance, organization, curriculum content, field placements, and instructional materials used. Because of constant input from governance councils, Teacher Education, (TED), programs are increasingly being reflected upon and changed when necessary. The respondents identified several factors which need to be addressed if renewal is to be successful. An important renewal ingredient is correlating curriculum content within the teacher preparation program and with the field sites. The following additional comments were abstracted from the data:

- If TED is housed in a Professional Services College, renewal is more difficult (Probably relates to traditional or historical development of teacher education as a program similar to other 4 year degree programs governed by a faculty perceived as academics, not professionals). Faculty teaching loads (especially in the arts and science) can be problematic.
- A number of faculty do not see the need to change current programs.
- Tenure and promotion criteria must be adapted to consider the increased field component of the professor's time.
- New governance structures must be designed that includes all participants in implementing programs and for ongoing collaboration.
- Planning committees need to have wide representation, both university and K-12 school personnel.

In order to have a united philosophy for renewal, several concepts must be clarified. First, the Goodlad Postulates and agenda must be accepted and basic renewal assumptions need to be valued. Second, shared decision-making must be agreed upon. Third, clarity must be derived from what can be gained by working at school sites. Fourth, professional justification must be made for those classes remaining on campus and a rationale established for those moved to a field site. Fifth, since the program will be continually changing it is suggested that a "constructionist" philosophy be discussed and agreed upon to make the renewal movement proceed positively.

Renewal progresses smoothly when: (1) a unifying vision is *established*; (2) *when* there is a connection with the NNER and the Holmes Group; (3) central administration, even when change in key administrators has occurred, demonstrates support for renewal; (4) the dean verbalizes support and shows commitment; and (5) there is a unity within a core faculty group. Human and fiscal resources (especially when there are financial problems at the university and within the public school system), time constraints, varying faculty viewpoints especially, those assigned

to TED that remain skeptical, and turf issues were variables that impeded renewal at these sites.

A number of institutional constraints were cited. Because of the financial problems with universities and public schools, support from the Dewitt-Wallace Foundation Grant was a fiscal benefit for those universities receiving one. Also, since a number of university faculty are reluctant to change teaching strategies and teach at field sites, the NNER associates program provides theoretical incentives for renewal. More creativity needs to be employed in identifying renewal opportunities for secondary teacher education programs. Secondary programs are discipline oriented, rigorous, and not easily meshed with multiple subject cohorts.

A number of scattered comments suggested that key players must include parents and community representatives. Also, the need for establishing faculty cohort groups was cited several times. One site responds, "We have a 'university facilitator' group (all full-time faculty) which meet regularly with each other." This provides a bonding and mutual sharing of professional concerns. In particular, faculty with responsibility for training school administrators must be committed and involved in the renewal dialogue. Administrator candidates must be placed as interns in partnership schools and involved on school advisory councils.

Program distinctiveness was cited as a major variable for teacher education renewal efforts. Developing a new and distinctive name seems important. The following are two examples: "Professional Educator Program," and one University Center for Teacher Education is changing to a post-modern/informal "Center of Pedagogy." We suggest serious consideration be given by programs to change to a distinctive title for the TED renewal program.

CONCLUSION

In reviewing the findings a number of conclusions can be drawn. NNER sites are committed to renewal and change in both the content and process of teacher education. A number of initiatives within the 11 responding sites resulted in established partnerships, alterations in teacher education, i.e. 5th year program, distinctive name changes, altered faculty teaching assignments, increased use of student cohort groups, clinical teaching assignments for public school faculty, and active governance councils. The process of renewal requires time, energy and commitment--the results justify the means.

This inquiry study further suggests that the process of change is tedious at best and requires patience. Processing the variety of individual perspectives on teacher education and how teacher preparation should be conducted call for sharply honed understanding. Leaders in this renewal effort must be articulate, visionary, and committed to the long term process of change. A positive institutional climate may be the single most influential factor in efforts to renew teacher education.

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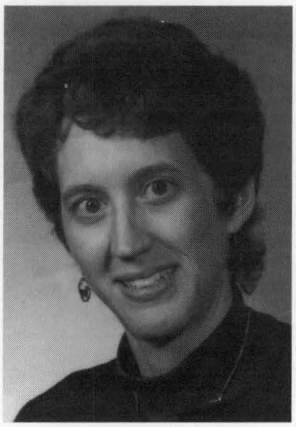
Portfolios and the Nontraditional Student: Implications for Teacher Preparation Programs

Bette S. Bergeron
Linda A. Hus



Bette S. Bergeron is Associate Professor of Education and Chair of Teacher Education at Purdue University Calumet in Hammond, Indiana. She also chairs Purdue Calumet's Professional Development School partnerships. Bergeron's area of specialization is elementary literacy instruction and assessment.

Linda A. Hus is Associate Director of Teacher Education and NCATE (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education) Coordinator at Purdue University Calumet in Hammond, Indiana. She is also the School of Education's State Licensing Advisor and liaison with the Indiana Professional Standards Board.

Abstract

The following study examines the needs of nontraditional students as they relate to the development of a portfolio assessment requirement in a teacher preparation program at a large commuter campus. Nontraditional students, identified as older adults in undergraduate programs, are increasing in number across college campuses. These students bring unique life experiences, skills, and expectations to the college classroom. The characteristics of nontraditional students, and the impact on portfolio development, are explored through a description of one unit's development of standards-based professional portfolios. These student characteristics include the challenges of outside responsibilities, recognition of students' lived experiences, provisions for peer sharing and feedback, and opportunities for self-reflection. As these characteristics are considered in program planning, the professional growth and success of all students--including older adults--can be effectively supported.

In recent years, there has been a trend towards older, "nontraditional" students on today's college campuses (deBlois, 1993). The interrelated effects of shifting demographics, fluctuating socio-economic conditions, and changing expectations associated with age-related cultural differences have raised the mean age of post-secondary students, and it is anticipated that this aging population will continue to grow (Youngman, 1995). Students who are at least 25 years old comprise 41 percent of the current U.S. undergraduate enrollment (Kasworm, 1993); the number of students who are 35 and older has increased by 50 percent over the past 10 years (Edmondson, 1997).

While individually diverse, older undergraduate students do share some similar characteristics and concerns. These students may face major personal changes, including career shifts, strained relationships, increasingly independent children, and an awareness of their own untapped potential. They tend to be highly anxious about their abilities and acceptance within college life (Kasworm, 1993; Taylor & Marienau, 1993) and look to their instructors to provide humane, personal, and caring attention. In contrast to their younger peers, nontraditional students view schooling as an opportunity for self-discovery and confirmation. They characteristically perform well, are enthusiastic about their coursework, and have developed skills in organization, self-discipline, and adaptivity (Youngman, 1995). DeBlois (1993) found that nontraditional teacher education students are more self-assured in their ability to work with fellow teachers and administrators, realistic in their expectations about workplace conditions, and cautious and reflective in their attitude towards the profession.

Nontraditional students also maintain different expectations regarding their classroom experiences at the university. Often, they are more comfortable in a mentoring environment that facilitates continuing self-reconstruction and didactic approaches to learning (Youngman, 1995). Adult learners perceive that effective college instructors are knowledgeable, show concern for student learning and their diverse needs, present material clearly, motivate learners, emphasize the relevance of class material, promote active learning, create a comfortable learning atmosphere, and use a variety of instructional techniques (Donaldson, Flannery, & Ross-Gordon, 1993).

Because of their growing numbers and unique expectations for post-secondary instruction, nontradi-

tional students must be considered when developing or refining any undergraduate program. In failing to do so, the needs of a significant body of students will be left unmet. The following article focuses on one aspect of a teacher preparation program that has been significantly altered to address the needs of this important student population. This component, the use of portfolios to assess future teachers'growth and proficiencies, also has implications for other professional programs seeking to address challenges of assessment while recognizing the needs of nontraditional students.

Portfolios and Teacher Preparation Programs

Portfolio development is becoming increasingly infused into professional preparation programs, as these tools provide an avenue for capturing the complexities of professional practice in ways no other approach can (Wolf, 1996). Portfolios have the potential to shift ownership and responsibility for learning to the learner (Krause, 1996), help students become more articulate (Barton & Collins, 1993), and provide students with the means for expressing how they have mastered program goals in specified skill and content areas (Hermon & Tack, 1996). As a cumulative record of a student's progress, portfolios can foster reflective thinking and provide evidence of a studentís problem-solving and self-evaluation (Mokhtari, Yellin, Bull, & Montgomery, 1996). As they maintain portfolios of their work, students learn to assess and self-direct their own progress as learners as they develop a showcase to share with future employers.

In addition, portfolios provide benefits for faculty in the professional program. Through student/faculty interviews, in which portfolio contents are shared and assessed, faculty have the opportunity to learn more about the individuals in their program, view student work in the context of teaching, and to determine the strengths and needs of students for the future (Barton & Collins, 1993; Cummings, Jackman, Swan, & Wenzlaff, 1996). Portfolios allow faculty to engage in discussions regarding the professional program, thus enhancing program reform (Hermon & Tack, 1996). Through their interactions with students and their portfolios, faculty can also gain new insights into their own accomplishments (Mokhtari et al., 1996). The use of portfolios can lead to fundamental shifts in ways programs perform through a framework of meaningful, shared, and authentic evaluation (Barton & Collins, 1993; Winsor & Ellefson, 1995). In addition, portfolios have the potential to yield both formative and summative data when evaluating teacher education programs (Copenhaver, Waggoner, Young, & James, 1997).

Portfolios are particularly well suited for teacher preparation and the "complex, multifaceted, multidimensional roles" of the profession (Copenhaver et al., 1997, p. 105). In particular, these tools are reflective of current state and national initiatives that utilize portfolios as part of performance assessments related to teachers' professional growth plans and licensure. Through their portfolios, teacher education students demonstrate teaching skills that match the program's mission (Dollase, 1996). As they develop their portfolios, teacher education students give substance to their personal ideas about their knowledge, beliefs, and skills as a teacher. This experience allows them the opportunity to become decision makers about curriculum and develop various instructional repertoires (Barton & Collins, 1993). Mokhtari et al. (1996) contend that the exposure to and use of portfolios in teacher education can play a critical role in positively influencing future teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards using portfolios in the classroom. As future teachers retain examples of best practice, they can examine, discuss, adopt, and adapt their practice (Wolf, 1996). Wolf notes that the objective for using portfolios is not to create outstanding documents, but to cultivate outstanding teaching and learning. As observed by Barton and Collins (1993), portfolios have the potential to stand "instructor-driven approaches to teacher education on its head" (p. 202).

Portfolios and Teacher Education: Purdue University Calumet

Purdue University Calumet is a commuter campus that enrolls over 9,200 students each semester. Located in the northwest region of Indiana, it has the unique opportunity to serve both urban and rural students. Most of these students reside and work in northwest Indiana, and 60% attend classes on a part-time basis. Approximately 26% of the student enrollment represents a variety of minority ethnic and cultural groups. The average age of the student body is 27, and many are first-generation college students. Students in the teacher preparation programs reflect the overall campus student body in many ways, including age and ethnic composition. Approximately 53% of all undergraduate teacher education students are considered ìnontraditional,î and over 40% attend classes on a part-time basis.

The development of teacher education portfolios within the School of Education at Purdue University Calumet occurred simultaneously with a campus-wide assessment initiative. As part of this initiative, all programs on campus are directed to create assessment plans that identify goals, expected student outcomes, and procedures for measuring the outcomes. The continued focus of assessment on campus is to identify areas for program improvement. Faculty in the School of Education found that an initial challenge in meeting this goal was determining how to develop appropriate outcome statements that best reflected program goals. As the School began to closely examine changing program expectations being addressed by state and national accreditation agencies, nine Teacher Education Standards evolved (see the Figure). These standards, which are based in INTASC, NBPTS, and state principles, provide the framework for the programís portfolio development.

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
TEACHER EDUCATION STANDARDS

1. **Instructional Planning, Preparation, & Implementation**
The teacher effectively prepares and implements instruction that reflects a variety of instruction and assessment strategies and motivates students to actively engage in learning.

2. **Content Knowledge**
The teacher understands and applies the central themes, concepts, and skills associated with his/her teaching major and the relationship between this major to other subject area disciplines.

3. **Communication**
The teacher uses knowledge of appropriate verbal, nonverbal, and written communication in preparing instructional materials and can effectively communicate with all stakeholders within the educational community.

4. **Technology**
The teacher understands the central concepts related to educational technology, and can effectively and appropriately implement this technology into classroom preparation and instruction.

5. **Special Needs**
The teacher understands various learning and physical disabilities, how these may be manifested in learning situations, and how to adapt instruction to ensure success for all students.

6. **Multicultural Education**
The teacher understands the nature of diversity in the human community, how cultural and gender differences can affect learning, and how to create a learning environment that protects the individuality and dignity of all learners.

7. **Problem-Solving**
The teacher understands and uses a variety of problem-solving heuristics when planning for instruction and in fostering students' critical thinking abilities.

8. **Educational Research**
The teacher understands current trends in educational research and can critically examine this research in relationship to classroom application.

9. **Community**
The teacher understands the dynamics of educational, geographic, and school communities; can effectively participate within these communities; and fosters a learning environment that respects all students.

One primary challenge remained as the School of Education began to address concurrent campus-wide and accreditation assessment issues. This challenge rests in how to regularly measure the progress of over 600 undergraduate teacher education students while determining whether program outcomes are achieved. To add to this challenge, over half of those enrolled in teacher education are adult, non-traditional students who have outside responsibilities that often limit their time on campus or who have transferred several credits from other institutions. Though traditional forms of assessment were previously adopted, including student teaching evaluations, program surveys, and standardized tests (i.e., NTE, PPST), the use of professional portfolios emerged as one additional means for authentically measuring student outcomes. Implemented in the fall of 1994, portfolios are now required of all teacher education undergraduates. The goals of this initiative are to support the growth of quality professionals, measure graduates' success against the Teacher Education Standards, and to provide alternative means for gathering feedback regarding program evaluation.

Since its inception in 1994, the School of Educationís portfolios have been undergoing continuous refinement. Presently, portfolios are maintained by each individual teacher education student. Portfolios consist of reflection papers, entries, and rationale statements. Reflection Papers are part of entrance and exit requirements in the teacher education programs, and provide students with the opportunity to reflect on their potential as teachers and the impact of their professional experiences. Portfolio entries, which are often selected from coursework, are to reflect studentsí proficiency in each of the nine Teacher Education Standard areas. For example, to demonstrate proficiency in the 'Communication' standard, students may choose a research paper that they believe best represents their potential to communicate effectively through writing. Students include a Rationale Statement for each of their entries, where they describe how their selected entry meets the standard and the impact of the entry on their professional growth. At the conclusion of their program, students are required to include at least 15 entries and, in doing so, address all of the Teacher Education Standards through their portfolios.

The students' portfolios are reviewed at three points during their program: pre-admission, post-methods, and post-student teaching. As part of the process of admission into teacher education, students submit their portfolios to the Teacher Education office, at which time they are reviewed for writing mechanics and required elements (e.g., the Reflection Papers, Rationale Statements, and a minimum number of entries). After students have had the opportunity to address any discrepancies, they are scheduled for an interview with two faculty members to discuss their initial portfolio development and identify strengths and needs of both the individual student and the program as a whole. As students enter their methods coursework, they are mandated to attend a peer review meeting where they provide feedback on each others portfolios. Opportunities are also provided for dialogue and further reflection on the nine Teacher Education Standards. During a student teaching seminar in their final semester, students use their portfolios in a mock interview with faculty and local school educators in order to gain feedback about their interviewing skills and proficiency in each of the Standards. The studentsí University Supervisors provide a final review of the portfolio.

A portfolio's acceptability is determined by its completeness (e.g., whether all of the required elements are present), appropriateness of the entries in meeting the standards, and written mechanics.

Consequences are in place in the event that a student does not meet these requirements. If a student fails to complete an acceptable portfolio prior to admission into teacher education, the student is required to wait until the following semester to reapply. At that time, an updated portfolio is submitted. Students who do not attend the methods peer review meeting are not recommended for student teaching. If a portfolio is unacceptable at the conclusion of student teaching, the candidate is not recommended for licensure. At each of these checkpoints, however, students do have the opportunity to appeal the decision of the reviewer(s).

While students were at first resistant to the portfolio requirement, which was viewed as an extra hurdle in their admission and retention process, students currently appreciate the opportunity to reflect upon and share their work. They also recognize the potential use of their portfolios in the job search process. In addition, students are beginning to understand the connection between the School of Educationís standards for their professional development and their own growth as future educators.

Portfolios and the Nontraditional Student

Although the benefits of portfolios in professional teacher education programs have previously been addressed in the literature, the adaptability of this assessment tool to nontraditional undergraduate populations has not been the focus of inquiry. Consideration of the unique needs and expectations of these older students is imperative, however, as portfolio initiatives are developed and implemented. In particular, four characteristics of nontraditional students have the potential to impact portfolio development: the challenges faced by older students in relation to scheduling and outside responsibilities, the need to recognize individualís life experiences, making provisions for peer sharing and feedback, and allowing time for reflection.

Challenges of outside responsibilities. Nontraditional, older students lead complex lives as they balance families, work, school, financial constraints, and outside commitments (Kasworm, 1993; Youngman, 1995). Kasworm notes that the "pull and tug between important stakeholders in their lives creates a constant tension to balance and negotiate their lives with significant others" (p. 164). Because of these constraints on time and scheduling, nontraditional students often take courses on a part-time basis. Similarly, the transfer of credits from other institutions is also a prevalent practice with nontraditional students as they move across state lines to pursue job opportunities. The challenge for professional preparation programs is to insure that program expectations are clearly communicated (Carroll, Potthoff, & Huber, 1996), even when students have not had introductory courses at the same institution that overview the expectations of the program.

The transitory nature of students at Purdue Calumet, coupled with their part-time status, was an initial challenge as the School of Education first introduced the professional portfolios. Initially, portfolio entries were prescribed and tied directly to specified course assignments. For example, all students were required to reproduce journal entries from a selected early field experience course. Because many of the students had taken introductory courses at other institutions with distinctly different course experiences, students were immediately frustrated by the portfolioís requirement. The inflexibility of the portfolio's format simply did not reflect the course (or life) experiences of the students.

The challenge of inflexibility was addressed as the Teacher Education Standards were adopted. In the current portfolio program, students select entries from any course or experience, including those outside of college life, that demonstrate proficiency in the standard. This allows the portfolio to be more individualized, and provides all students with the opportunity to more carefully reflect on their entry choices.

Recognizing lived experiences. Nontraditional, older students have had a universe of personal experiences that are reflected in their intellectual and sociological status of life (Kasworm, 1993). For teacher education students, these experiences may include raising their own children (or grandchildren), substitute teaching, working as a teacher's aide, and myriad other volunteer and community commitments that have enabled them to develop many skills essential in the profession. It is the responsibility of teacher preparation programs to tap these experiences, and allow students the opportunity to reflect their unique backgrounds in their college work.

Ownership and relevance can become essential program features to students who do have a depth and breadth of life experiences; issues of ownership must also be addressed when developing portfolios. Portfolios do have the potential of being a primary vehicle for helping students make sense of their own experiences (Mosenthal, 1994) and assuming ownership over their professional growth (Copenhaver et al., 1997). However, Carroll et al. (1996) caution that physical ownership of the portfolio is not enough. Programs must insure that the guidelines and structure of the portfolios do not give students a sense that the portfolio is something done to them, and not by them. Self-selected items are therefore an essential component of the portfolio, as this decision-making process facilitates student ownership and helps students envision themselves as active participants in their own assessment and learning (Truscott et al., 1994).

Students in Purdue Calumet's School of Education now have the opportunity to utilize personal experiences as they make selections for their portfolios. This was not originally the case, however. Initial portfolio guidelines required that students select entries only from their current college coursework. Personal experiences could be included in an "optional" section of the portfolio. In the current portfolio system, students can choose entries from any aspect of their professional growth--including

coursework and outside experiences. There is also a standard on "Community" that focuses on the importance of developing relationships with a variety of stakeholders both inside and outside of the classroom.

Provisions for peer sharing and feedback. Donald et al. (1993) suggest that professional preparation programs must include more of a collaborative social environment between teachers and learners in order to meet the needs of older students. The support of peers and faculty facilitates older students' acclimation to university demands (Youngman, 1995), and strengthens their sense of self and collegial relations (deBlois, 1993).

Portfolios can play a critical role in fostering collegial collaborations for nontraditional students. Interaction with mentors and other colleagues is considered an essential part of the portfolio process (Barton & Collins, 1993; Wolf, 1996). Carroll et al. (1996) contend that these collaborations may be key to ownership for both students and the faculty, and recommend that dialogue occur not only among faculty but between faculty/students and students/students. Wolf, Whinery, and Hagerty (1995) describe portfolio collaborations as "structured discussions among the portfolio author and other group members about the portfolio authorís teaching practice" (p. 33). The goal of portfolio discussions is to help the portfolio author to improve his/her own teaching practices. This dialogue can also provide insight into students'own development and support for the reflective process (Truscott et al., 1994).

One way to promote collaborative sharing is through peer group meetings where portfolios are shared, discussed, and reviewed. In this process, students can serve as models for each other and, as they discuss and explain their thinking, begin to clarify and solidify abstract concepts (Truscott et al., 1994). Copenhaver et al. (1997) describe a three-way process of collective sharing. Through evening seminars, student teachers present their portfolios to undergraduates in the program, while group discussion is facilitated by graduate students. This tri-level of learners "generates a synergistic collaboration that enriches the demonstration" (p. 107).

At Purdue Calumet, collaborations occur during each of the portfolio review phases, and include discussions with faculty, other students, and local school educators. When the concept of portfolio assessment was first introduced in 1994, additional "focus group" meetings were held to clarify procedures and provide students the opportunity to share concerns with peers and faculty. These meetings supplied invaluable feedback as the portfolios continued to evolve over subsequent semesters. Other modes for dialogue can include presentations to small groups of peers, round table discussions, and poster sessions (Potthoff, Carroll, & Wells, 1996).

Opportunities for self-reflection. As compared to their younger peers, nontraditional students are often more autonomous and therefore desire to be supported in planning, implementing, and evaluating their own learning (deBlois, 1993). This process can be encouraged through opportunities for self-reflection. Taylor and Marienau (1993) suggest that self-assessment is significant in supporting older students' journey of growth and change. Self-reflection can include a learner's intentional reflection on his/her learning experiences while promoting self-confidence in oneís own professional growth. In particular, self-reflection is integral to teacher preparation programs. It is considered one of the keys to career-long professional development, and can affect and direct professional choices and directions (Winsor et al., 1995). Student reflections are a potent means of bringing about an integration of theory and practice (Barton & Collins, 1993).

Because they offer a glimpse into both the processes and products of a learnerís experiences, portfolios can be significant in developing reflection among teacher education students (Messner, Cole, Swonigan, & Tillman, 1992/93). Self-reflection that occurs within the process of portfolio development can expand learning and create inner dialogue about a student's own development (Truscott et al., 1994). At Purdue Calumet, reflection includes written papers overviewing students' progress, the documentation of their rationale for entry selections, and opportunities for dialogue at peer and faculty interviews. These reflective commentaries can assist students in articulating their thoughts, bridge the gap between theory and practice, and trace how beliefs may have changed over time (Barton & Collins, 1993).

Concluding Thoughts

Nontraditional students have the potential to offer the depth of experience to any teacher education program. As the number of older students continues to increase, it is essential that these programs reflect the unique needs of all students to ensure their success as learners and future teachers. Portfolios, when they are flexible and allow for self-reflection, can offer one avenue for supporting the professional development of nontraditional (and traditional) students.

The need to consider the characteristics of nontraditional students becomes increasingly apparent as teacher education program portfolios are developed and adopted. For example, it is suggested that prescriptive requirements are avoided. Instead, students should be allowed the flexibility to select entries from an array of lived experiences or coursework that demonstrate their proficiency in standards established by the teacher education unit. This flexibility recognizes the importance of varied experiences, and supports students' sense of ownership in their learning. In addition, it is suggested that students have multiple opportunities to meet with peers and faculty members to share their portfolios and receive feedback on their progress. These events recognize the importance of collegiality that is supported by shared dialogue. Finally, it is recommended that students be encouraged to reflect on their

own professional growth. This process enhances their sense of autonomy and builds responsibility for individual professional development. Reflection can occur through group dialogues, essays, and rationale statements to accompany entry selections.

Kasworm (1993) recommends that all higher education programs reframe their sense of service and activities to respect all ages and life circumstances. The learning environment must communicate "the respect for accessing and participating in the university community from oneís own sense of life choice" (p. 165). Portfolios offer teacher preparation programs with one avenue for developing respect, reflectivity, and professional acuity as all students engage in their own process of growth.

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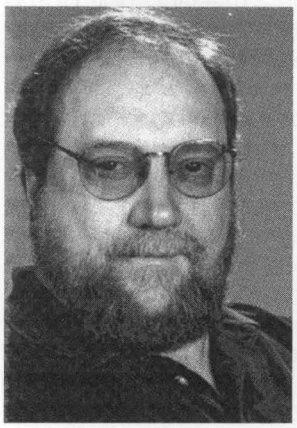
"It is easier to move a cemetery than to affect a change in the curriculum."

– Woodrow Wilson

Engaged Learning: The Changing Role of Teachers and Students in a Technological Society

Bruce O. Barker
Michael W. Dickson

Bruce O. Barker is Professor and Dean, College of Education at Southern Utah University. His previous appointments include: Assistant Dean in the College of Education at Western Illinois University, Director of Secondary Education at Brigham-Young University-Hawaii Campus; and Assistant Professor of Instructional Technology at Texas Tech University. Barker is a Professor of Instructional Technology at Texas Tech University. Barker is a frequent presenter at state, regional, and national conferences and has published over 80 articles in professional education journals. He was one of the major contractors for the Office of Technology Assessment's landmark report, *Linking for Learning*, and has conducted studies to evaluate the effectiveness of technology use in education in Texas, Oklahoma, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, New York, Washington, Utah, Illinois, Indiana and Hawaii.



Michael W. Dickson is Executive Director of the Center for the Application of Information Technologies (CAIT) in the College of Education at Western Illinois University. He directs the funding, production, and delivery of more than 1000 hours of live interactive satellite and two-way compressed TV instruction annually. This includes college credit courses, staff development, high school credit coursework, and student enrichment. His staff also produces instructional video tapes, CD-ROMs, Web pages, and Internet-based instructional courses focused on the improvement of teaching and learning in higher education and in K-12 schools. Dickson has published extensively and currently serves as technology consultant to the Illinois Board of Higher Education. In addition, he has served as a consultant on technology-based learning projects for the State Department of Education in Texas, Utah, and Oregon.

Abstract: Most progressive educators agree that instructional technologies in the form of interactive multimedia, the Internet, distance learning, etc. have potential to significantly improve learning opportunities for students. Effective use of technology to improve instruction, however, demands that teachers also employ new strategies which optimize the use of these tools. This article defines the concept of *engaged learning with technology* and identifies the eight characteristics of *engaged learning* as applied to teachers who effectively use technology to improve instruction.

Today's young students are growing up in the electronic age -- getting their information from television, computers, video games, and other electronic devices. Rapid technological developments of the past two decades have made possible an array of technological tools that can profoundly change today's classrooms. Interactive video, satellite links, telecommunications, interactive multimedia, and the exponential growth of the Internet are changing the way students learn and the manner in which teachers teach. Unfortunately, the actual application of computer and telecommunications technology into the nation's schools is far behind its potential. And, in relation to technology uses in business and industry, it is lagging far behind.

Technology is seen by most progressive educators as the means to improve and restructure schools. In all too many instances, however, the solution is seen in identifying what kind of technology we need is schools without giving serious consideration to how the technology is to be integrated into instruction and how teaching methodology must be adapted in order to optimize the use of new technology tools. Educators often lament that if they just had more computers, all students connected to the Internet, access to high capacity data lines, use of a satellite down link dish, or some other technological marvel then their educational program would be much better. Technology is not a panacea and new technologies acquired and placed in the classroom without efforts to integrate the tools into the curriculum will not significantly improve education.

Teaching Strategies must be linked to Interactive Technologies

In the process of integrating computer and telecommunications technology into the curriculum, the premise must be accepted that we have passed the age where the teacher is simply the disseminator of information and that students are passive recipients. We can no longer replicate a model in which students and a teacher spend most of their time looking at each other with the teacher doing almost all of the talking. The information explosion has made it impossible for the teacher to be the "all knowing master" in the classroom. *If we are to be successful in improving education, we must empower students to be responsible for their own learning* by:

(1) teaching them new approaches to acquiring

knowledge (rather than largely listening to lectures or completing written assignments from textbooks) that optimize new technologies and informational tools; and (2) by providing instructional resources beyond text books that expand students' opportunities to acquire new knowledge and information.

In short, we must link advanced technologies to advanced teaching strategies. Classrooms employing advanced teaching strategies, yet devoid of advanced technology, are only meeting half of the equation to improve schools. The same is true of classrooms with advanced technologies, but pursing the traditional approach of a teacher dominated learning environment without incorporating new teaching strategies.

Classroom teachers who hope to make maximum use of today's technologies must employ new skills and learning strategies in their teaching. Such skills will help young people accept increased accountability to learn on their own and to draw meaningful conclusions from such inquiry. New teaching/learning methods which have been researched in recent years as successful strategies for increasing student accountability include, but are not limited to, collaborative learning, thematic teaching, electronic field trips, guided inquiry, apprenticeship learning, group problem solving, and critical thinking.(D'Ignazio and Shultz, 1991). In harmony with these learning/inquiry strategies, students of the future must be provided with educational resources beyond textbooks and chalkboards which allow them to use audio, video, computer, telecommunications, distance learning, multimedia technologies, and the Internet for gathering information, solving problems, and drawing conclusions.

Instructional Strategies to Integrate Technology into the Curriculum

Under the guidance of a skilled teacher, the strategies listed below empower students to be both responsible and accountable for their own learning. These strategies lend themselves very well to the use of today 's information technologies. These, and related strategies, should be used as a means of making full use of information technologies in the classroom.

Collaborative Learning: Under direction of the teacher, students work in teams that are self-managed and pursue self-guided inquiry. Students are responsible for their own learning and their teammates' learning. Students rotate the role of leader and other roles. No student is supposed to know everything, but all students are encouraged to make a contribution.

Electronic Field Trips: Modern telecommunications technologies such as video telephones, facsimile machines, and particularly the Internet permit students the opportunity to speak with and view students in other parts of the nation, share printed and graphic materials, and search large data bases for detailed information on thousands of topics. Working individually or in teams, students organize and plan electronic searches, make social contact with students in other schools and with subject matter experts, and learn social and communication skills in sharing information with others at distant locations.

Thematic Teaching: The teacher functions as a classroom leader-facilitator. Several topics of study may be combined under umbrella themes such as Russia, whales, space exploration, etc. The themes contain units across the curriculum and apply topics to real-world problems and issues. Students work independently or in teams to gather information on subtopics within a common classroom theme. Information gathered by individuals or teams is shared with the entire class to produce a final product.

Guided Inquiry: The teacher teaches not by telling students facts and answers, but by posing problems, mysteries, and questions that challenge student teams or individuals to investigate topics of their own. The teacher guides the inquiry to help students interpret recent findings, make interpretations on their own, etc.

Apprenticeship: Learning by doing is the focus of apprenticeship training. The practice is for students, under the guidance of a teacher, to do deeper investigating into a given subject. Students learn to communicate their understanding clearly and effectively to other students, and they must "show that they know" and understand the topic under study.

Group Problem Solving: In group problem solving, students get hands-on training by experimenting with numerous group problem solving strategies. They might learn new verbal skills, written skills, computer skills, etc. The teacher constantly challenges the group with interesting problems that would be too long or too complex for any individual to solve on their own. Students learn that they are smarter, quicker, and stronger as a team than they are individually.

Critical Thinking: The teacher's strategy is to place the student in confusing, uncertain situations in which students understand only partly what is expected of them and how they are to accomplish a certain task. As students work individually and together to gather information that will help them accomplish a mutual goal, they have opportunities to participate in higher level thinking activities, and are forced to make decisions and see the outcome of their decision making.

Characteristics of Engaged Learners

A dynamic shift is occurring in American education as our society moves from traditional measures of learning as defined by student performance on standardized tests to a new paradigm of "engaged learning." Engaged learning is best defined as "learning that involves more student interactions, more connections among institutions, more collaboration among teachers and students, and more emphasis on technology as a tool for learning" (Jones, Valdez, Nowakowski, and Rasmussen, 1995).

The engaged learning model centers on information and communications technologies as tools to assist faculty in helping students take responsibility for

their own learning, become knowledge explorers, and collaborate with others to find information and to seek answers to problems. In an engaged learning model, faculty are seen as facilitators, guides, and co-learners (not just knowledge dispensers) with their students. Teachers mediate, model, and coach their students. While making use of electronic databases and information resources beyond traditional textbooks and chalkboards, the role of faculty and students periodically change --, students may become "teachers" and teachers may become "students" (Jones, et. al., 1995). As engaged learners, both faculty and students become "technonauts" -- that is, much like astronauts explore worlds unknown, "technonauts" are knowledge explorers/navigators who use technology tools to find, exchange, and analyze digital information. The eight characteristics of engaged learning and their associated descriptors have been identified by researchers at the North Central Educational Laboratory as follows (ISBE, 1995):

Vision of Learning: Engaged learners take responsibility for their own learning and are self-regulated. They define problems and goals that are meaningful to them, are able to work successfully in teams, and they have learned how to learn. The descriptors of a "vision of learning" include:

• Responsible: assumes that students who help define goals, design activities to reach goals, and evaluate their achievements, learn better than those who don't participate actively in constructing their own learning.

• Strategic: assumes that students who learn "how to learn" will learn better in the future.

• Energized: assumes that students who learn in an engaged learning environment find excitement and pleasure in learning and therefore learn better and seek to learn more.

• Collaborative: assumes that learners who can communicate their ideas, have empathy for others, are fair-minded, and who are self critical learn better than those who do not.

Tasks: Engaged learners participate in tasks which are authentic, challenging, and multidisciplinary.

• Authentic: assumes that the best tasks are related to real world problems, using real world technology tools, build on life experiences, and often require in-depth work.

• Challenging: assumes that learners who are engaged in complex tasks that often require extended time, learn better than those engaged in simple tasks of short duration. But, engaged learning principles can also be applied to simple tasks.

• Multidisciplinary: assumes that tasks which blend disciplines into thematic or problem-based projects cause more learning than do tasks that are narrowly defined by discipline.

Assessment: Assessment of student learning in an engaged learning model is performance based, generative, seamless and ongoing, and is based on multiple measurements.

• Performance based: assumes that when students understand and construct new knowledge from information received and create real things in the process, they learn best.

• Generative: assumes that when students help create assessments through an understanding of curriculum goals and an awareness of the differences between shallow and significant knowledge, they learn best.

• Multiple measurements: assumes that the best assessments should be multiple measurements from multiple sources.

Instructional model: In an engaged learning model, students are interactive and generative.

• Interactive: assumes that when the learner realizes that what s/he does has an effect on the instruction, then a more positive learning/teaching synergy is created.

• Generative: assumes that learner creator knowledge is better than teacher structured information.

Learning context: Engaged learners are collaborative and empathetic.

• Collaborative: assumes that in a learning community, intelligence is distributed among the members; and that the best knowledge is built through collaboration.

• Empathetic: assumes that full collaboration requires understanding of others and an active recruitment of individuals by the group.

Grouping: Engaged learners seek to work in groups which are heterogenous, flexible, and equitable.

• Heterogenous: assumes that groups made up of differing genders, cultures, learning styles, abilities, socioeconomic status, and ages cause the best learning among their members.

• Flexible: assumes that groups that are configured and reconfigured according to the purposes of instruction as a project develops provide the greatest learning opportunities for students.

• Equitable: assumes that heterogenous and flexible groupings provide the most equitable learning opportunities for individual group members.

Teacher roles: In an engaged learning environment, the classroom teacher is a facilitator, becomes a guide, and is a co-learner with students.

• Facilitator: assumes that teaches who provide resource rich environments, and a variety of learning experiences and activities cause better learning to take place.

• Guide: assumes that teachers who have and who practice the skills of mediation, modeling, and coaching enable learners to learn best

• Co-learner: assumes that teachers who collaborate with students, and who also seek to find answers to questions along with their students, effect greater learning.

Student roles: In an engaged learning setting, students become knowledge explorers, apprentices, teacher mentors themselves, and knowledge producers.

• Explorer: assumes that when learners discover concepts and apply skills by interacting with the real world and with others, they learn better than when they deal with abstractions.

• Apprentice: assumes that when learners observe, apply, and refine through practice thinking processes used by real work practitioners, the students learn better than when analyzing thought processes in an abstract context.

• Teacher/mentor: assumes that students learn more through peer tutoring.

• Producer: assumes that learners who produce real-world use products learn better than those who analyze abstract ideas, but never synthesize or create.

Applying the Engaged Learning Model to Integrate Technology in the Classroom

Traditional teaching roles must adapt to the changes imposed by new technologies. More and more teachers are gaining access to interactive multimedia technologies, CD-ROM and interactive courseware, and on-line resources through the Internet that can be activated at anytime, day or night . The same resources are also accessible by students, thereby changing the role of the teacher from a dispenser of information to a facilitator and guide. Interactive multimedia technologies, telecommunications, and the application of engaged learning strategies suggest new roles for teachers which include (Jensen, 1993):

• Teachers will be more involved in inspiring students, making them want to learn more, than in transmitting knowledge to them.

• Teachers will spend more time preparing materials that use the hypermedia technology and can be accessed anytime.

• Teachers will do more to help students select learning goals and choose among multiple learning materials.

• Some teachers will build reputations as authors of hypermedia materials that are available on worldwide educational networks.

SURWEB an Internet-based Resource for Engaged Learning

An excellent example of an Internet-based resource for directly involving both teachers and students in the types of engaged learning activities described above is the SURWEB multimedia tool available free on the World Wide Web. Established in 1995 with a three million dollar Federal Technology Challenge Grant, the State of Utah Resource Web (SURWEB) is an archive of over 22,000 images with related text files of national parks, geological formations, native cultures, wildlife, etc. in the western United States. The site receives well over 1 million hits from across the United States per month and provides teachers with hundreds of multimedia lesson plans, electronic field trips, and standards-based learning units. Furthermore, the tool enables students to create and produce multimedia presentations for interchange with other students or for delivery in their home schools. Interested readers can access the site at <http://www.surweb.org/Information.htm>. An online tutorial is provided to explain the SURWEB multimedia functions and their application across the K-12 curriculum.

New and developing instructional technologies will continue to bombard the educational marketplace. If teachers are to effectively integrate the full power of these technologies into their teaching, the strategies of *engaged learning* must be understood and employed by today's classroom teachers. Certainly, the challenge is not a simple one. Yet, if educators fail to integrate modern and evolving technology in American classrooms, the education provided in our schools will have limited meaning in the lives of our students.

Reform and improvement efforts in American education begin with the premise that our schools, designed in the industrial age, do not meet the needs of today's information-based society. The task facing today's teachers is to prepare young people for their future, not our past. The U.S. Office of Technology Assessment's epic study *Power On! New Technologies for Teaching and Learning* suggests that the new tools of the information age can be pivotal in shaping the American classroom to fit and adapt to it's ever changing environment:

> although new interactive technologies cannot alone solve the problems of American education, they have already contributed to important improvements in learning. These tools can play an even greater role in advancing the substance and process of education, both by helping children acquire basic skills and by endowing them with more sophisticated skills so they can acquire and apply knowledge over their lifetimes (U.S. Congress, OTA, p. 4).

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Educational Reform: Exhibition and Regression

Michael D. Richardson, James M. Smith, and Cathy S. Jording

Michael D. Richardson is Professor of Educational Leadership and Doctoral Program Coordinator at Georgia Southern University. Dr. Richardson was awarded the EdD from the University of Tennessee. He has authored or edited twelve books, published more than seventy-five articles in professional journals, and made more than one hundred presentations to national and international professional organizations. Dr. Richardson served as a secondary and elementary principal, Personnel Director, Director of Special Projects, Coordinator of Federal Programs, and Assistant Superintendent before entering university teaching.

James M. Smith, Ph.D., is Professor of Educational Administration and Dean of the Division of Education at Indiana University South Bend. He is a former elementary and middle school teacher, a former elementary assistant principal and building principal. Dr. Smith taught educational leadership courses (primarily administrative theory, supervision and curriculum) in Ohio, Indiana, and Texas for more than a decade before entering higher education administration on a full-time basis. He also has served as program director for the educational leadership programs at West Texas A&M University and Butler University. Dr. Smith served as the founding coordinator of a copperative doctoral program in educational leadership involving both Texas Tech University and West Texas A&M University. Dr. Smith is the author of over 35 refereed research articles, books, and book chapters. A native of Ohio, he holds a bachelors degree in administration from Xavier University (Cincinnati, Ohio), and a doctorate in educational leadership from Miami University.

Abstract

Educational reform is nothing new. Education, by its very nature, is a process that requires changes as its constituents changes. Periodically, Americans take a look at their schools and cry foul. The results of this outcry is often school reform. Unfortunately, most of these educational reform efforts are of the quick fix variety that treat only symptoms not the underlying causes. Once again, America is experiencing another phase of reform designed to correct the perceived flaws present in the educational system. The current reform efforts seek to enhance school improvement, effectiveness, and efficiency and thereby return schools to their former greatness. However, the current school improvement movement will fail to have any significant lasting effects on education. School reform will inevitably fail for the following reasons: historical, social, organizational, and political.

Cathy S. Jording is Assistant Professor/Coordinator, Educational Leadership, University of Texas of the Permian Basin, Odessa, Texas. Jording's many roles dealing with statewide educational reform in Texas and Kentucky include consultant, author, and speaker. She specializes in early childhood education/primary program administration and development; learner-centered instructional management; school improvement; and systemic educational reform. She has served as an elementary principal during the Kentucky reform and as an early childhood administrator.

Introduction

After a long tradition of public support for public education, America today is experiencing an erosion of public commitment to public schools (Bravmann & Delisle, 1996). Politicians, reforms, and educators have decried the apparent disconnections among schools, society, communities, and families. During the 1980s educational and social researchers turned their attention the broad sociological processes at work in contemporary American schools (Bobbett & Ellet, 1997). They uncovered the silhouette of an expansive new theory of school effectiveness, a concept which theorized that the success of a school was substantially determined by the underlying structure of expectations and norms in the school (Dressman, 1995). This sociological system exerted a powerful influence on the behavior of faculty and students and ultimately sought to determine a school's success by applying accountability standards to performance (Berube, 1996).

Reformers perceive that the answers the educational problems are in restructuring schools or abolishing the schools for new social institutions; ie, charter schools, magnet schools, voucher systems, and other means for removing *the public* from public education (Case, 1994). However, if reform of education is viewed within the historical, social, organizational, and political frames of reference, it becomes readily apparent that fundamental reform will not succeed given the constraints present in today's educational environment.

Historical

Throughout the history of education, reformers and reform movements have shared their momentary place in the sun only to be forgotten and overshadowed by even newer, and therefore better, ideas that are certain to solve all of education's

problems (Taylor, 1997). Glickman (1987) states that "As one reform gathers momentum and becomes prevalent, a countermovement begins to create an intense under current" (p. 20). Education and reform portend to be omnipresent and ever changing (Goldman & Conley, 1997). Perhaps, as in Tarzan movies of the 1930s and 1940s, there is an elephant's graveyard; if so, then surely a similar place exists for discarded reform movements (Spencer, 1996). Combs (1988) suggested that each reform movement was initially "vigorously advocated by educators, parents, school boards, or legislatures who hoped that it would prove to be the key to educational reform" (p. 38).

As the American dream has changed and been reconstructed, so has education (Richardson, Flanigan, Smith, & Woodrum, 1997). In the last 100 years America's schools traditional role has been to foster the upward mobility of the common person. Schools have been the great equalizer that allowed each individual, regardless of his or her social position, to prove his or her own worth (Sarason, 1990). However, this role has been dramatically altered because obtaining an education does not necessarily lead to success. Consequently, education is no longer the pathway to upward mobility.

The current reform efforts, as well as those efforts of the past, reflect the perceived needs of society (Steffy, 1994). The education system and the reform efforts of the present and past serve as mirrors reflecting the problems of their respective ages. Traditional schools sought to educate the child through effort. Learning was an arduous task to be mastered through recitation. Knowledge for the sake of knowledge was important to traditional America. As a reaction to the strict conservatism of the traditional era, John Dewey and others sought to reform education through a less rigid approach. The era of progressive education, which reflected the perceived needs of the American people, flowered during the turbulent period of the 1920s and 1930s. The devastating collapse of the stock market and the ensuing economic chaos, triggered an era of unprecedented social upheaval in America. During this crisis, educators sought to educate the whole child as a process oriented rather than product oriented phenomenon (Simpson & Jackson, 1997).

Yet, some of the progressives expanded their ideas a step further. George Counts (1932) in his book Dare the Schools Build A New Social Order?, sought to rebuild American society through the schools. The social reconstructionistic wing of progressivism sought to engineer these changes because they were only people qualified to properly led the land in the establishment of the new order. America's flirtation with such a radical change in its social order was interrupted by the Second World War. The former economic crash and social upheaval that had plagued education and the nation were forgotten as America's economy shifted into high gear to provide the world with the necessities of war (Love, 1985).

As the forties gave way to the fifties, progressivism began to wane. The era of progressivistic education was dying when the Russians shocked the free world with the launch of Sputnik I in October of 1957. American's schools were assigned blame for failing to adequately prepare the nation's youth. Reform was mandatory - - our nation's security was endangered. According to Comer (1988), ". . . the United States panicked. Our schools tried to do even more of what they were already doing -- teachers teaching and students learning in a mechanical form" (p. 34).

With this one event, the launching of Sputnik I, the technological age as born and the progressive education movement was finally pronounced dead. Education eagerly moved for reform, primarily through the disciplines of science and mathematics (Davies, 1997). These disciplines became of vital interest to the survival of the American people and their democratic system of government. Science and technology were viewed as the components of education that would save the nation (Katzman, 1995).

In the 1960s and 1970s education had to cope with another round of radical reactions to the social ills of America. Once again, the schools were agents of social change (Klingele, 1994). Reactions to desegregation, forced busing, and inequality disrupted many of America's schools. An unpopular war in Vietnam caused incredible unrest and violence within the nation's schools. Drug use and rebellion toward any authority flourished (Whitman, Thornton, Walsh, & Taylor, 1986).

As history passed into the 1980s, the experts began to question the ability of the public schools to deliver on their charge to be everything to everyone in society and to be the cure for all of society's ills. In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence in Education released its report on the state of American's schools: A Nation at Risk which threw education into a state of turmoil (Hunt & Staton, 1996). The report outlined a series of recommendations for schools, parents, and the states. A massive overhaul of education and curriculum would be required if American education was to be saved. In fact, Hogan (1996) declared that America was besieged on every side by ineffectual leaders and ineffective schools.

Social

The results of A Nation at Risk are reflected in many of the current efforts to reform education. Are these reform efforts mandated and dominated by politicians, masquerading as reformers, likely to succeed? In the professional judgment of the authors, these reform efforts, like those of the past, will also fail because efforts to achieve academic excellence ignore the social ills that trouble America.

Since the early 1980s there has been a growing emphasis on restructuring American public education (Cuban, 1990; Chubb & Moe, 1990). The focus of restructuring has stemmed from the recognition that the world is rapidly evolving both as a technological and global society. These societal changes impact

how schools are to prepare students to be productive citizens in the 21st century (Brown-Haynes & Holland, 1996). The world's knowledge base has doubled twice in this century and continues to increase geometrically. Business and industry leaders forecast that current data processing and information systems will be replaced by "sophisticated devices for knowledge creation, capture, transfer, and use" (Dede, 1989, p. 23). Futurists predict that global and multicultural pressures will alter the workplace creating an economy that is globally interdependent. This dictates the need for greater understanding and knowledge of world cultures and ability to cope with diversity of context (Merchant, 1995). Teams increasingly will become the way people work in all types of organizations (McCormack, 1996). Studies of effective business suggest that the collective knowledge skills, and creative energy of groups of individuals enhances the quality and quantity of output in organizations (Romer, 1997).

The changing society dictates that students will need skills and competencies in critical thinking, reasoning, and creative problem solving . The team structure in the workplace demands workers who can function in a cooperative settings, focusing on group task performance and collaborative learning (Richardson, Blackbourn, Ruhl-Smith, & Haynes, 1998). There also is the realization that schools must function in environments that support critical thinking, collaboration, cooperative learning, and participant involvement in critical decision making (Bjork & Richardson, 1997). Many advocate that schools must significantly restructure in order to address student learning (Donaldson, 1993).

Education does not operate within a vacuum because by its very nature, education is a people-oriented process. The social problems that exist within American society, the same society that the educational system serves, become problems that the educational system must consider as it attempts to educate students (Heckman & Peterman, 1996). Any educational reform that does not respect the numerous social problems which currently plaque the nation's school-aged youth will not have the lasting effect sought by the progenitors of that reform (Coombs & Wycoff, 1994).

The idea of reforming schools through more courses, more hours, more services, more pay, and more equipment has long since lost its charm. Similarly, the idea that reform can be achieved through tougher curriculum standards and tougher teacher certification requirements has not passed the test (Reynolds, 1997). One of the real keys to educational reform must be in matching improved educational performance while addressing the quality of life students experience today (Ruiz, 1996).

Educational reform movements come and go without making any lasting changes because they fail to consider the real problem: The human in education. Education and its reform efforts must continually deal with the relationships between people. Critics blame the schools, their teachers, and administrators for the current poor condition of education (Flanigan & Richardson, 1998). These critics fail to recognize that many problems schools are required to overcome have been imposed upon the schools by sources outside of education (Saban, 1997). Today's schools must contend with large numbers of children living in poverty, rampant drug use and abuse, the effects of divorce, the dissolution of the family unit, crime, teenage, pregnancy, teen suicide, and child abuse. Each of these social ills is present in the classroom, but not as the result of educational failure (Rittenmeyer, 1987).

The scope of these social problems is enormous. Millions of children are affected by divorce and millions more live in poverty, of which African American and Hispanic children are proportionally over represented. The teenage pregnancy, birth, and abortion rates are higher for the United States than for most other countries. Drug, alcohol and tobacco use among high school students remains high. Suicide is now the third leading cause of death among today's teenagers (Richardson et al, 1997). Current reform efforts judge schools on the basis of test scores, yet fail to account for the varying social backgrounds and individuals differences of the students. Efforts that fail to recognize the diversity and depth of American's current social ills are doomed to failure, disillusionment, and abandonment (Cohen, 1995).

Responsibility for solving these problems, in many cases, has been delegated to the schools. Unfortunately, this is a task that many schools are not equipped to handle (Richardson et al, 1997). Rittenmeyer (1987) stated that "using the schools to achieve racial balance, eliminate poverty, fight drug abuse, prevent pregnancy, and reduce youth suicide is simply too much" (p. 37). In an era where available finances are already stretched to the breaking point, educators are asked to do increasingly more with less money (Flanigan & Richardson, 1994). It is not surprising to find teachers and administrators frustrated when critics attack education's quality and demand excellence regardless of the social costs (Flanigan, Marion, & Richardson, 1997).

American schools are not serving this nation's teachers or students very well. In a society where adolescents are not valued, it is understandable why many choose to dropout. Neither motivation or mortality can be mandated, legislated, or otherwise ordered. To do so invites failure through a lack of genuine acceptance of ideas being promulgated. Some would advocate redesigning the current educational system to accommodate the personal, cultural, and economic needs of students and help them with higher education and career aspirations. The present movement toward excellence makes no provision for such needs. The gap between those who dropout and cannot or will not be able to cope with out technologically oriented society and those who can and will control this society will widen even further. Not only does this school have to exists within a realm of externally fueled social problems, but it must exist in a climate where the day to day strug-

gles can make reform seem unattainable; therefore, it becomes unimportant (Le Brecque, 1995).

Organizational

American schools have historically been a reflection of public priorities. As the public desired or needed broader programs, the schools were asked to shape the curriculum toward accomplishing those objectives. As society changed, so did the schools. As some elements of society changed their impact on students, primarily the family and the church, schools were viewed as the one stabilizing influence on children. Historically, public sentiments outlined very broad objectives for schools; however, recently goal ambiguity has become a major problem encountered by educators as they confronted the complex milieu of public needs. Logically, schools could be more effective if the goals of both the public and the school district were clearer. However, when goals are not clear, the constraints placed upon educators lead to some very real conflicts for both the community and the school (McDonnell, 1989).

It is a sad but true fact that reform efforts predominantly emanate from the top-down and are forced on those who are least likely to have been consulted on what really needs to be changed. Lasting educational change will never come from slogans, nor can it be effectively imposed from above. True educational change must originate from those who are intimately involved in the process and who take the risks associated with the reform. Change within education has numerous enemies: lack of knowledge, lack of interest, resentment, fear, and panic are but a few. Is it any wonder why change and reform are so difficult? In times of declining enrollments, shrinking resources, and public criticism of the past efforts of educators, who can blame educators for not being eager partners in the runaway train called educational reform (Jackman, 1996)?

Many educators are not embracing reform due to the negativistic reports that condemn education as a whole. This search for excellence is really a search to place blame. American educators are an easy target for this finger-pointing attitude. With the negative atmosphere dominating the scene it is not difficult to understand why educators are not enamored with reform mandated by those individuals who are not directly in contact with the classroom. Teachers and administrators are often burdened by legislated accountability, evaluations, low pay, and lack of status. The current reform effort, dominated by its top-down orientation represents an approach educators have historically resented and resisted. Several studies indicate that teacher morale is rapidly declining and teacher alienation is on the increase (Steffy & English, 1994).

Inherent in the restructuring theme are implications for school structure and school leadership. Many suggest that if schools are to address successfully the needs of students for the 21st century, then changes must occur not only in instruction but in the way schools are structured for decision making, collaboration among participants, and accountability (Richardson et al, 1998). Commissions have recommended that schools be restructured to become flexible, autonomous units capable of solving problems at the school-base level. It appears that the changing environment requires schools that maximize all human potential within the organization to better prepare students to live in the evolving society.

Success in business and industry with the team approach for greater participant involvement in decision making has dramatically impacted the reform of schools. Traditionally, school-based participants have been excluded from key decisions that greatly affect their work design. Teachers were believed to be unable or unwilling to accept the responsibility of decision making . However, the current restructuring movement recognizes the need to empower school participants as authority and decision making is moved from the central office to school-based teams (Richardson et al, 1998).

In addition, the question must be addressed about how to evaluation the reforms that have been implemented. Have any of the efforts been in place long enough to provide politicians and reforms with sufficient evidence that the mandated reforms are working? According to Jackman (1996), the educational reformers have not developed an assessment and delivery system that will accomplish the goals of the educational process. In fact, some have questioned whether or not education has a clear sense of mission or purpose given the unprecedented demand for reform, change, accountability, and restructuring.

School reform faces challenges from those within the system, as well as those reformers outside education. Not everyone involved in education is willing to accept the current efforts of reform. Change, and undeniably reform is change, can be frightening and most unwelcome to individuals who have not taken part in the decision making process that advocates the change. Change, reform, excellence, effectiveness are terms often removed from the classroom where the business of education takes place on a daily basis (Vinovskis, 1996).

Political

A final consideration that will help bring about the failure of the reform movement is the political nature of the movement. This reform endeavor is not one single idea being adopted and mandated across America. It is a fragmented piecemeal effort. Kirst (1988), stated that "In the current climate of crisis, there is a rush to mandate new effectiveness-oriented reforms. But state omnibus statutes that include 40 or more separate reforms do not embody reform in a systematic or interrelated fashion" (p. 77). Individual legislators, reformers, politicians, business persons and others have their own pet theories and have attached these ideas to reform legislation with-

out any real notion of what actually drives the classroom teacher's performance. The current reform effort has become a question of control. Who is in charge of schools? Who should be in charge? These questions have different answers when asked to the various groups who would seek to control education and reform.

Accountability in reformed schools moves from school effectiveness indicators (dropout rates, attendance, standardized test scores) to include learner effectiveness indicators. These include assessment of mastery skills with criterion-referenced tests, portfolios of student products indicating empowerment, creativity, and self-directed learning. All these indicators are framed within the current standards movement which seeks to standardize curriculum and educational programs, not just at the state level, but at the national level. Almost all specialized educational groups, eg., the National Council of Teachers of Science and the National Council of Teachers of English, have established standards for their clients which are passed on the states in the form of curriculum mandates and certification requirements (Berube, 1996).

The idea of the centralization of control has appeal for many legislators and politicians. This is demonstrated by the growth of state control over education that has increased dramatically in the last decade, especially the funding for education. Control of education by forces that are far removed from the day to day situations reduces teacher input into policy (Bjork & Richardson, 1997). Kirst (1988) proclaimed that "the effective schools literature suggests that most important changes take place when those responsible for each school are given more responsibility rather than less" (p. 79). Control needs to be reestablished by those individuals closest to the realities of teaching in today's public schools. True reform, if it can happen, must be founded at the local school.

The ultimate control of the classroom is in the hands of the individual teacher. No matter what reformers and politicians, who would be reformers, mandate, the real power lies with the teacher. Teachers often see these well-intended efforts as a threat to them (Lieberman & Grolnick, 1996). The presence of this threat is quite real. While the novices in state capitals toy around with education, teachers, students, and schools suffer from the effects of this roller coaster ride known as school reform.

Reform today encompasses a magnitude of movements aimed at increasing accountability revitalizing interest in the productivity of American schools. The reform movement literature now advocates cultural literacy, early childhood education, and future studies. Critics of education have maintained schools have included far too many subjects of study in the current curriculum. These critics declare that schools attempt to teach everything to everyone and end up teaching almost nothing to anyone. It would seem that a reform movement as diverse as the current effort will also fail to effectively cause lasting reform for the same reason (McAdams, 1997).

Conclusions

In conclusion, educational reform will suffer the same fate as the reform attempts that proceeded it. It should be apparent that modest gains obtained through reform may well be forgotten in the ever changing cycle of "bandwagon" educational change illuminates a more perfect vista just beyond the horizon.

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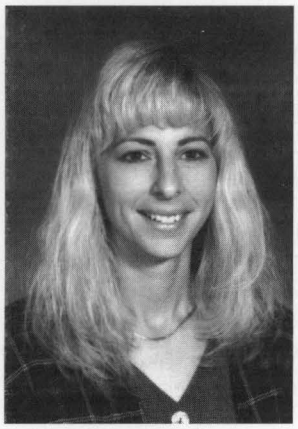
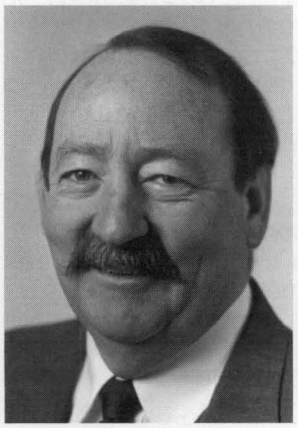
Comparison of Teacher Perceptions of School Climate Variables Between Career Ladder and Non-Career Ladder Schools

Brenda Howard, Michael W. Graham, and Phillip E. Messner



Brenda Howard is the Technology Coordinator at Avenue City School District in Avenue City, Missouri. Her areas of research include school administration, especially as related to school climate, technology integration, and computer/business education.



Michael W. Graham is Professor and Chair in the Department of Educational Leadership in the College of Education and Human Services at Northwest Missouri State University, Maryville, Missouri. He is also Director of Student Teaching. His current area of research is principal selection methodologies and portfolio usage.

Phillip E. Messner is Associate Professor in the Department of Educational Leadership in the College of Education and Human Services at Northwest Missouri State University, Maryville, Missouri. He is also Coordinator of the Northwest Cohort in the Cooperative Statewide Doctorate Leadership Program. His current area of research is school-related foundation development and management.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine teacher perceived school climate differences, if any, between career ladder and non-career ladder schools as measured by mean scores derived from the Missouri Advance Questionnaire--Classroom Teachers. Twenty-five specific questions related to teacher perceptions of school climate were compiled to determine teacher attitudes toward school climate indicators. A two group comparison of 150 Missouri school districts. School group one (n=84) employed some type of teacher career ladder program, whereas, group two schools (n=66) did not have career ladder programs. This study supports reported findings that career ladder programs have no effect on teacher perceptions of school climate indicators; that teachers involved in career ladder programs are very satisfied and supportive of the career ladder model; and that teachers not involved in career ladder programs hold negative perceptions about the career ladder model.

For many educators, school restructuring and reform has become a way of life. The restructuring movement has challenged school leaders to redefine an effective school. Cuban (1984) initiated research to identify fundamental factors common in effective schools. This research found that schools that are mindful of student needs produced a more positive educational experience than one in which student basic needs are ignored. The atmosphere within which learning takes place has been termed "school climate." Climate has been defined as, "The result or outcome of the interaction between a leader (school principal) and a group of followers (teachers)" (English, 1994, p. 129). Morris (1981) reports that a positive school climate conducive to learning is a prerequisite for the formation of an effective school.

Mackler (1996) reports that respect, recognition, and rewards of the job are critical in effective work relationships. It was also found that, "Staff interpretations of work environments profoundly affect objective tasks and outcomes" (Hart, 1994). Teacher job satisfaction may have a major impact on the school atmosphere. Although school climate and teacher satisfaction are two different concepts, they are closely linked. Miller explains, "Climate is the prevailing set of views held by members of an organization. Satisfaction, on the other hand, is a personal, affective state that represents each individual's own reaction to and experience of conditions in the building" (p. 6). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that teacher satisfaction with school programs contribute to the overall school climate.

Many schools, in an attempt to improve teacher satisfaction and school climate have implemented "career ladder" programs. Kaiser points out that career ladder programs for teachers are "designed

to recruit, retain, and reward outstanding teachers" (1992, p. 49). Low ceiling teaching salaries combined with unstructured pay differential (i.e., high beginning salaries and low ultimate potential) have led many professional organizations to endorse the career ladder program concept (Role and duties, 1990). Career ladder programs usually require teachers to participate in a professional development program that includes a comprehensive evaluation procedure based on student feedback, peer review, and supervisor monitoring (Furtwengler, 1987). Caldwell, Fishbein, and Woods assert that, "The career ladder enables individuals to advance their own professional and career aspirations" (1994, p. 56). Career ladder programs have become increasingly popular with 25 to 30 states addressing it in some way. A survey, conducted in 1984, found that 82 percent of responding teachers either "agreed" or "tended to agree" with national and state recommendations for the implementation of career ladder programs, with 92 percent of principals agreeing, as well (Lavely, Berger, Bullock, Folman, & Kromvey, 1990).

The Nation at Risk Report (1983) prompted the Missouri Legislature to adopt the Excellence in Education Act of 1985 which established a career ladder program option for all Missouri public schools. The Missouri Career Ladder Program (CLP) specified that all teacher professional development activities were to be related to academics programs and services for students as outlined in a district plan. These professional development activities were to be performed above and beyond normal contracted time Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (1997). The CLP provides a 3-stage flexible framework designed to encourage teacher professional advancement. Participating teachers are financially rewarded for performance and professional responsibilities. Professional responsibilities are sub-divided into three categories for organizational structure: (1) personal and professional growth, (2) faculty collaboration, (3) and community/school involvement. CLP teachers prepare annual career development plans to set standards of performance (Missouriís Career Ladder Program, 1993).

Purpose of Study

Miller reports that job performances and satisfaction (including salaries and career ladder) are only inputs into the school and classroom environments. In itself, a career ladder program is not enough of a factor to have a direct effect on school climate (1993). An interest to test Miller's assertions and to determine teacher perception of Missouri career ladder program effects on school climate indicators prompted the authors to initiate this study. The purpose of this study was to determine differences, if any, of teacher perceptions of school climate as measured by mean scores derived from the Advance Questionnaire--Classroom Teachers (OSEDA, 1997). The OSEDA is a teacher questionnaire used in the Missouri School Improvement (MSIP) program . Teachers from selected Missouri schools with and without a career ladder program were surveyed. Four school climate indicators were compared for mean score differences. The indicators were (1) school instructional climate, (2) student behavior climate, (3) achievement recognition climate, and (4) satisfaction with career ladder programs.

Review of Literature

This review covers recent knowledge related to the impact of school climate on the learning and work environment, and career ladder program effects on teacher job satisfaction.

School climate and learning. School climate and positive school environments for student learning are desired outcomes for Missouri schools. Positive school environments are essential for student learning. Research has discovered the human body cannot distinguish between physical and mental dangers. A stressful classroom environment can cause the body to release cortisol from the adrenal gland as if there were a threat of bodily harm. Long periods of this type of stress can destroy hippocampal neurons which are associated with learning and memory. In short, stressful classroom environments hinder student learning. The opposite is also true. A positive classroom atmosphere that promotes favorable social contacts causes the body to release endorphins which produces chemical responses that allow students to learn how to solve problems (Sylvester, 1994). No wonder such an importance has been placed on positive school climate. Research conducted in the past ten years has shown a connection between positive school climate and measurements of school success such as academic achievement, high morale, staff productivity, and effective management (Howell & Brainerd, 1987). Additionally, "Much of the work in this area produced positive correlations between the direct measurement of student perceptions of climate and student outcomes" (Miller, 1993, p. 2).

Career ladder programs. Policy makers have established career ladder programs to help schools to attract and retain good teachers. A career ladder program is a progression of steps (thus, the name) on which teachers advance through their professional development. Teachers on higher rungs are paid higher salaries. Advances up the ladder are based on criteria which demonstrate positive professional growth and achievement in the areas of continuing education, student and peer evaluations, years of service, extra duties, and so forth (Ballou, 1995). Utah CLP's are comprised of four components: (1) performance bonus, (2) job enlargement, (3) ladder levels, and (4) extended days off. Teachers and principals rate the extended days off as the most popular component (Horan & Lambert, 1994).

Comparisons between career ladder program schools and traditional schools have shown that CLP schools are more likely to embrace school reform, enhance teacher empowerment, and improve student performance (Stropko, S., 1993). Mantt and

Price (1994) report that after three years, a CLP in a local school district has produced no teacher grievance filings and that the teachers felt more empowered and held more ownership of the learning environment. Another study indicated that experienced CLP teachers more highly valued "work redesign" CLP component, whereas, less experienced CLP teachers more highly valued the "extrinsic reward" (i.e., higher starting salary) CLP component (Conley & Levinson, 1993). A study conducted in Ohio reported that career enhancement programs tended to increase student learning opportunities. The report also cited peer review and targeted staff development components as the most beneficial professional development activities (Ohioís career enhancement, 1994).

Negative aspects of CLP. Many authors point to the merit pay component of career ladder programs as a negative detractor to the program. Individual merit pay incentive programs have been cited for their poor track record. For example, Clees (1992) found that teacher incentive programs in South Carolina did not make better teachers, but rather were a burden. The competitive nature of merit pay programs has been found to have the potential to negate desired faculty collegiality and teamwork (Bostock, 1995). Because of this potential negative impact on the work environment, Ballou and Podgursky fear that faculty competition for merit pay incentives will impair the cooperation necessary for schools to function effectively (1993). Furthermore, "The Association (NEA) believes that instructional performance pay schedules, such as merit pay, are inappropriate because of the complexity of the teaching-learning process" (1993, p. 51). Other research reports that competition for salaries in a career ladder system does not directly effect school climate according to the Task Force on Effective School Climate. Miller claims, "Teacher salaries or demographic characteristics, for example, do not directly produce outcomes; these realities, or perceived realities, are internalized and processed (mediated) by the individual mind to produce the outcomes we see and measure"(1993, p.4).

According to Matthes, Tollerud and Langeveldt (1990), teachers are not as excited about the career ladder concept. They found that elementary teachers did not believe that "upping the stakes" would improve the quality of their teaching because they were already doing full investment in curriculum and close interpersonal work with their students. Missouri teachers were found to also hold negative perceptions about of the value of CLP's. Although, Missouri teachers tolerated the evaluation components of CLP, they were very critical of CLP as a whole (Henson & Hall, 1993).

Methodology

A two-group ex post facto research design (Crowl, 1996) was utilized to investigate stated purposes of the study. The study compared mean scores from two groups of Missouri school districts, one group with a career ladder program, and the other without. Data were collected in the form of means scores from a questionnaire completed by Missouri teachers through the Missouri School Improvement Process (MSIP) in 1995. Specific questions relating to school climate and teacher satisfaction were compiled to measure the mean rating of teacher attitudes toward school climate. A two-tailed independent t-test analysis was used to determine significance at the 0.10 Alpha level to identify significant differences, if any.

Sample. The authors collaborated with the Office of Social and Economic Data Analysis (OSEDA) at the University of Missouri-Columbia for statistical and sample identification assistance. OSEDA performs all the statistical analysis for the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE). OSEDA identified from their data bank a study group that consisted of a random sample of 150 school districts located the state of Missouri. The random sample ensured representation of elementary and secondary teachers that included all genders, races, degree levels, and other demographic aspects found in the 150 school districts. The sample contained 56 percent career ladder schools (n = 84 schools) and 44 percent non career ladder schools (n = 66 schools). No other variables such as school district size, economic status, etc. were associated with the statistical analysis. The sample represented about 30 percent of the total number of school districts in the state of Missouri.

The research questionnaire. The Advance Questionnaire--Classroom Teachers (AQ-CT) was used to determine teacher perceptions of school climate. The AQ-CT was designed for use by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE) in conjunction with the Missouri School Improvement Process Review (MSIP) to determine a school's effectiveness and accreditation status (OSEDA, 1997). The questionnaire was developed for DESE by OSEDA for the purpose of collecting professional opinions about several important areas related to schools (i.e., school climate being one). It should be noted that the MSIP review occurs every five years; therefore, the responses were recorded over a five year period. The respondents were instructed to answer based on their majority assignment if more than one instructional assignment was applicable. For example, an assigned three-fourths high school and one-fourth elementary teacher responded based on the high school assignment only.

The AQ-CT was broken into nine subsections and contained a total of 122 items. However for the purposes of this study, only twenty-five statements of the original 122 were used. The selected items focused on school climate indicators and career ladder program satisfaction indicators as identified by the authors. The stem statements contained wording to measure both climate views of the organization from the informant's perspective and satisfaction views from the respondent's perspective (Miller, 1993). The scores were derived from a five point Likert type

scale in which a rating of "1" indicated a strong disagreement, while a rating of "5" indicated a strong agreement. Scores ranging from three to five indicated a positive or favorable response to the statement.

Data Analysis. To investigate teachers' responses toward climate and satisfaction, total mean scores by item and by identified school were collected from the OSEDA AQ-CT. A random sample of 150 school districts yielded dependent variable mean scores for each of the twenty-five focused questions relating to school climate. The questionnaires were completed by teachers employed by a Missouri School District, thereby, possessing a valid teaching certificate. A total classroom teacher group mean score for each school by questionnaire item was recorded. The independent variable studied was school professional development program type: Type one consisted of those schools who identified themselves as utilizing career ladder programs and type two were schools without career ladder programs. A comparison was then made between the two types of schools for each of the twenty-five items through the use of Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer analysis (Schick, 1997). Average school mean scores, standard deviations (SD), t-test values (t), degrees of freedom (df), and probability (P) values were computed for each of the twenty-five comparisons. The items were ranked by t-test value to further identify teacher perception differences between the two school types.

Table 1

Teacher Perception of School Instructional Climate Between School Type.

School Instructional Climate	Response*	Mean	SD	df	t	Prob.**
14. Teachers are involved in school decision-making.	Non	3.71	0.51			
	Career	3.78	0.49	148	-0.87	0.39
1. Teachers work together to coordinate instructional programs.	Non	4.18	0.32			
	Career	4.22	0.36	148	-0.76	0.45
7. Class interruptions are minimal.	Non	3.71	0.34			
	Career	3.67	0.48	148	0.59	0.56
3. The school climate in my building is conducive to learning.	Non	4.19	0.35			
	Career	4.23	0.36	148	-0.58	0.56
5. My principal encourages constant improvement in my teaching.	Non	4.15	0.30			
	Career	4.10	0.42	148	0.57	0.57
4. Staff is focused on academic achievement.	Non	4.01	0.29			
	Career	4.00	0.37	148	0.41	0.69
22. School facilities provide an atmosphere conducive to learning	Non	4.12	0.41			
	Career	4.13	0.41	148	-0.17	0.86
13. There are open channels of communication.	Non	4.04	0.40			
	Career	4.03	0.48	148	0.05	0.96
6. Building administration supports academic programs in my building.	Non	4.00	0.36			
	Career	4.00	0.43	148	-0.02	0.98

Notes:
* School Type (Sample Size) **Significant at Alpha = 0.10 or less
Non = Non-Career Ladder Program (n=66)
Career = Career Ladder Program (n=84)

Table 2

Teacher Perception of Student Climate Between School Type.

Student Climate	Response*	Mean	SD	df	t	Prob.**
12. Student government shares in responsibility for behavior.	Non	2.87	0.72			
	Career	2.99	0.64	148	-0.96	0.34
8. Students are well behaved	Non	3.74	0.38			
	Career	3.69	0.49	148	0.66	0.51
9. Students understand what conduct is expected of them.	Non	4.15	0.29			
	Career	4.13	0.40	148	0.44	0.66
11. Rules of conduct are enforced fairly and consistently.	Non	3.87	0.47			
	Career	3.89	0.54	148	-0.23	0.82
10. Consistency among teachers and administration in enforcing discipline.	Non	3.66	0.46			
	Career	3.65	0.60	148	0.20	0.94

Notes:
* School Type (Sample Size) ** Significant at Alpha = 0.10 or less
Non = Non-Career Ladder Program (n=66)
Career = Career Ladder Program (n=84)

Findings and Results

This study investigated whether teacher perceptions about school climate indicators were different as a result of the implementation of career ladder merit pay programs. Data summaries were prepared and presented in the four following tables. Each presents the findings from the four school climate indicator areas: (1) school instructional climate, (2) student behavior climate, (3) achievement recognition climate, and (4) satisfaction with career ladder programs.

As presented in the Table 1, no significant differences in teacher perceptions were found between the two school types. However the greatest differences lie in those items that reflected teacher involvement. Teachers in career ladder schools perceived a slightly greater involvement in school decision-making (mean = 3.78) than teachers in non-career ladder schools (mean = 3.71). Likewise, career ladder teachers perceived themselves working together to coordinate instructional programs (mean = 4.22) than teachers in non-career ladder programs (mean = 4.18). Teachers were in greatest agreement about administration support for academic programs and openness of communication.

Table 2 presents data that studied teacher differences about student climate perceptions. Again, no significant differences were identified. Teachers in career and non-career ladder schools perceive no significant differences in student behavior between the two types of schools. However, career ladder school teachers did perceive more student government responsibility (mean = 2.99) than in non-career ladder schools (mean = 2.87). However, students in non-career ladder schools were perceived to be a little better

behaved (mean = 3.) than in career ladder schools (mean = 3.69). Teachers were in greatest agreement about perceived consistency among teachers and administration for student discipline and enforcement of the student rules of conduct.

It was also found that teacher achievement recognition between the two types of schools produced no significant differences as determined by teacher perceptions (see Table 3). Teachers in career ladder schools perceived to a slightly greater degree that the board of education recognized their achievements (mean = 3.63) than do teachers in non-career ladder schools (mean = 3.56). Teachers in career ladder schools tended to look forward to coming to school more (mean = 4.20) than did teachers in non-career ladder schools (mean = 4.17). Teachers were in greatest agreement about perceived recognition of student accomplishments.

Table 3

Teacher Perception of Achievement Recognition Climate Between School Type.

Achievement Recognition	School Type*	Mean	SD	df	t	Prob.**
15. My achievements are appreciated by the board of education.	Non	3.56	0.51			
	Career	3.63	0.54	148	-0.82	0.42
18. I usually look forward to each working day as a teacher.	Non	4.17	0.22			
	Career	4.20	0.30	148	-0.61	0.54
19. If I had a choice I would still choose teaching as a career.	Non	4.06	0.33			
	Career	4.08	0.36	148	-0.49	0.62
16. Recognizing/rewarding the accomplishments of students.	Non	4.07	0.32			
	Career	4.06	0.36	148	0.22	0.82

Notes:
* School Type (Sample Size) **Significant at Alpha = 0.10 or less
Non = Non-Career Ladder Program (n=66)
Career = Career Ladder Program (n=84)

When comparisons of teacher perceptions of career ladder programs were made, highly significant differences were found between the two types of schools, as shown in Table 4. Teachers in CLP programs consistently rated CLP higher than teachers in non-career ladder schools. These findings would indicate that CLP teachers are generally very satisfied with their school's participation in CLP. Differences in teacher perceptions between the two types of schools were also noted in all the remaining items. Specifically, teachers in CLP schools perceived to a greater degree that CLP was beneficial in the following areas: (1) increased teacher involvement with parents and students; (2) encouraged teacher professional development; (3) improved teacher collaboration; and (4) encouraged teachers to remain in teaching. CLP teachers also believe more strongly than non-CLP teachers that school funds expended in CLP and minimum salary programs were beneficial.

Table 4

Teacher Perception of Professional Development Climate Between School Type.

Professional Development	School Type*	Mean	SD	df	t	Prob.**
23. Many of the best teachers are the CLP***.	Non	2.25	0.50			
	Career	3.75	0.91	149	-12.0	0.00
21. CLP increased teacher involvement with parents/students.	Non	2.30	0.46			
	Career	3.69	0.86	148	-11.7	0.00
24. CLPís are worth the money.	Non	2.90	0.59			
	Career	4.11	0.66	148	-11.7	0.00
20. CLP encouraged teacher professional development	Non	3.71	0.34			
	Career	3.94	0.92	148	-11.4	0.00
2. Teacher collaboration has improved because of CLP.	Non	2.25	0. 50			
	Career	3.58	0.89	148	-10.8	0.00
17. CLP encouraged teachers to remain in teaching.	Non	2.44	0.42			
	Career	3.61	0.81	148	-10.5	0.00
25. Minimum salary program has helped to retain competent staff.	Non	3.24	0.59			
	Career	3.65	0.57	148	-4.33	0.00

Notes:
* School Type (Sample Size)
Non = Non-Career Ladder Program (n=66)
Career = Career Ladder Program (n=84)
** Significant at Alpha = 0.10 or less ***CLP = Career Ladder Program

Conclusion and Implications

The following conclusions as measured by the Missouri AQ-CT appear to be warranted:

- This study supports the findings of Miller (1993) that CLP has no effect on teacher perceptions of school climate indicators. Schools can possess a positive school learning climate regardless of their involvement in CLP regardless of location or size.
- However, the study also supports other research findings (Lavely, Berger, Bullock, Folman, & Kromvey, 1990; Stropko, 1993; Mantt and Price, 1994; and Conley & Levinson, 1993) that teachers involved in CLP are very satisfied and supportive of CLP incentive and professional development activities.
- Lastly, it was found that teachers not involved in CLP are very non-supportive and hold negative perceptions about CLP.

Implications for School Leaders

Although only Missouri schools were included in this study and career ladder programs vary from state to state and country to country, this study has implications for school districts everywhere that are considering the adoption of career ladder programs. First, schools should not enter into a career ladder initiatives because of a perceived need to improve school climate. CLP's have not been found to influence teacher/student nor teacher/administrator interactions. However, if the district desires to improve professional development and growth of its professional staff, then a CLP should be investigated. And finally, school districts should not be put off by perceived negative teacher attitudes toward CLP, once teachers have been involved in CLP, their perceptions toward CLP become very positive.

Additionally, new research questions have been raised by the findings in this study. It is suggested that the following questions be studied to more fully understand why non-participating teachers hold negative attitudes toward CLP:

- Do non-CLP school administrators hold negative attitudes toward CLP?
- What are the sources of negative CLP information for non-CLP teachers?
- What role, if any, does professional organizations play in the development of negative attitudes toward CLP?
- What accounts for teacher satisfaction in CLP schools?
- And, what are the factors that promote job satisfaction in CLP schools?

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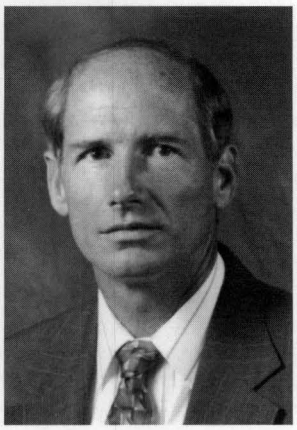
Seven Steps to Successful Change

Jerry E. Whitworth



Jerry E. Whitworth is Chair of the Education Department at Abilene Christian University in Abilene, Texas. He has written and directed several projects which have focused on helping schools move from exclusive to inclusive educational practices. He has also engaged in research regarding effective teacher characteristics and teaching at-risk students. Whitworth was formerly Manager of Program and Personnel Development for the Special Education Division of the Illinois State Board of Education. He received his doctorate from the University of Missouri in General and Special Education Administration.

Introduction

As we prepare to enter the Twenty-First Century a whole new educational landscape looms on our horizon. To successfully meet the challenges this new century will bring, our schools must have the capacity to adapt and change. But, as Thousand and Villa (1995) have pointed out, "schooling must be based on assumptions about future society and the skills, attitudes, and dispositions that will be needed for success in that society. Yet, in many communities, schools are organized to respond to assumptions about life in the 19th and early 20th centuries." (p. 31).

Dealing with change has not always been an easy process for our public schools. A number of authors have chronicled the context of change within schools and found it to be a very unpredictable commodity. (Sherritt and Basom 1996; Marzano, Zafron, Zraik, Robbins, and Yoon 1995; Cuban 1987). What does seem to be evident from these writers is that failure of most educational innovations or changes is not due to the change itself, but rather to the basic nature of change. Gann and Grield (1993) have noted, "Change is a highly personal experience for the individuals involved in the process." (p. 296)

What is it that enables some schools to master the winds of change, while others are not as successful? Our experience in an innovative project in southwest Tennessee may provide some answers to that question.

The Lighthouse Project was developed to provide a beacon, or lighthouse, for schools in the change process. We selected one school each year to be a "Lighthouse School." The first year we selected an elementary school, the second year a middle school, and the third year a high school. Each of these schools were designed to incorporate and demonstrate effective practices, or steps, for implementing change.

Based upon the project developer's experience with other schools in Missouri, Kansas, Illinois and Tennessee steps were identified and then carefully incorporated into each lighthouse school. These seven steps may be of help to other schools wishing to successfully negotiate the waters of change.

Leadership

Leadership is an important first step for change. Seldom have we seen a school succeed in the change process without strong, dynamic leadership. Tomey (1995) observed that school leaders must play an active and supportive role for change to occur. Other writers (National Center on Educational Restructuring and Inclusion 1995; McLaughlin, and Warren 1992; Pollak and Mills 1997; Harris 1997; Bruner 1997; Dare and Maddy-Bernstein 1997) have also echoed this. Robertson's (1997) study of school reform in New Zealand reported increased effectiveness as principals improved their leadership skills. And in discussing rural school reform Manges and Wilcox (1997) emphasized the critical leadership role of principals.

We used several methods to develop leadership in the lighthouse schools. We sent our principals and other key school personnel to visit schools that were successful in implementing innovative approaches to teaching and learning. Success breeds success and seeing others schools succeeding with change can be exciting and energizing and will help in igniting enthusiasm.

Another method we found to be useful was to provide positive publicity for principals engaged in change efforts. There are a number of features about being first and being on the leading edge of something that can be very exciting. Almost everyone likes to be noticed by their peers and their community for being a leader, for trying something new.

Another aspect of the change process was that principals in the lighthouse schools had more flexibility. They were freed from much of the bureaucratic red tape and restrictions that can be so limiting. This feeling of relative freedom to create and be innovative is very powerful. And, finally, principals in lighthouse schools had access to additional resources that were provided by the project.

We emphasized these positive features of our program to motivate principals to "buy in" to the project and take the reins of leadership. As Thousand and Villa (1995) noted, "those who choose to lead us into change must be aware of the barriers to change and take the risks necessary to overcome them." (p. 57)

Vision

Once leadership is in place the school must develop a common vision. Schlecty (1990) has observed that one of the greatest barriers to school reform is the lack of a clear and compelling vision. Barker stressed the importance of vision in almost every successful innovation in virtually every field of endeavor. Many writers have also spoken to the importance of vision in educational change (Eicher, Christie and Weseman 1997; Tomey 1995; Harris 1997; Carter 1997). Lashway (1997) has observed that an organizational vision creates a more unified school culture and serves as a way of reconnecting schools to an increasingly alienated public.

In the lighthouse schools a great deal of time was spent on developing vision. We provided speakers and videotapes that addressed the concept of vision, what it is and how to develop it. But, most of all, though, we had faculty, staff, parents, and members of the community to sit down together and talk about what they wanted for their children and their school. We did this with a facilitator who assisted everyone in developing and articulating a vision for the school. This vision, then, became the standard for all subsequent decisions and actions.

Lashway (1997) emphasized the importance of the principal creating a climate and culture for change. They can do this by speaking often and enthusiastically about the vision, encouraging experimentation, celebrating successes and forgiving failures, and by remaining steadfast in the face of inevitable problems and barriers.

Planning

Many an attempt at change has been derailed due to inattention to this step. Without adequate planning, confusion and chaos usually reign and failure is almost always the result. Several authors (NICHY 1995; Roach, Ascroft, and Stamp 1995; Simon, Darasoff, and Smith 1992; Center for Community Inclusion 1995) have affirmed the essential role of planning in school change. Some important points repeated in the literature is that planning should involve everyone involved in the change process and that the planning should be purposeful and systematic.

There are two aspects of the planning process we carefully observed in the lighthouse schools. We planned before we began implementing change and we planned during implementation. We began our planning the previous spring by having a series of meetings and talking about what we wanted to do and how we wanted to do it. Note that it was primarily the faculty, staff and community who did the talking. Project staff merely facilitated. Those individuals who are impacted by change must be empowered to help shape the process by which it is implemented.

Then, faculty, staff and members of the community met at regular intervals during the summer to develop a vision statement and to design an implementation plan for that vision. During the school year a coordinating committee met every Tuesday morning, before school, to discuss problems and develop solutions, and to share success stories with one another, always focusing on the school vision. On several occasions during the school year faculty and staff were provided with release time to do more in-depth planning.

During planning meetings everyone was encouraged to participate. A facilitator was present to help the process go smoothly, agendas and minutes were provided, and there was always follow-up in regard to decisions that were made in these meetings. Although finding time for planning can often be an issue, Thousand and Villa (1995) offer some excellent alternatives. These include such strategies as,

- Hire "permanent substitutes" to rotate through classrooms
- Engage parents and community members to plan and conduct half or full day exploratory, craft, hobby, or other experiential programs
- Partner with a college/university to have their faculty teach in the school or provide on campus demonstrations or experiences to free school personnel
- Rearrange the school day to include a 50- to 60-minute block of time before or after school for planning

Flexibility

The very nature of change demands flexibility. This flexibility is manifested in organizational structure (Skrtic 1987) as well as instructional practices (NASB 1992). As Skrtic pointed out, schools must organize themselves into new structures, depending upon the nature of the task. In other words, the organizational structure should encourage and make change possible, rather than create a barrier to it. In the lighthouse schools we learned that for change to take place, there must be flexibility within the school on the part of faculty, staff and the entire school community.

Project Lighthouse used a number of methods to achieve flexibility. In all of our planning sessions we focused on our vision and our objectives, what we wanted to accomplish, rather than focusing on what we could or couldn't do. In other words, our emphasis was on the product not the process. This freed us up to look at problems, issues, and objectives from different perspectives and to use whatever would work. Everyone was encouraged to be as innovative and creative as possible without worrying about whether it had been done before, or whether it would be "allowed" by the central office.

We also looked at flexible ways of using our resources. For example, to free teachers up for planning and staff development activities we used parents and education students from a local university to cover classrooms. Teachers noted that some students with special needs could spend more time in the regular classroom if they had their textbooks on tape and could thus pick up the content they needed to participate in class activities. This prompted a partnership with the local university where teacher

education students recorded the school's textbooks on cassette tapes.

Communication

As you can see from our discussion, an essential step in the change process is communication. David and Goren (1997) identified poor communication as one of the major barriers to change in education. Various other writers have commented on the fact that little meaningful change ever occurs without effective communication (Saurino 1996; Ovand and Alford 1997; Haver 1997). Provisions must be made for both formal as well as informal communication, and everyone must work to ensure that it takes place. Clement and Vandenberghe (1997) observed that a large amount of teacher communication often take place very informally, as in hallway conversations, but these communications are very important.

Don't, however, assume that communication will happen automatically. In the lighthouse schools, time was specifically scheduled on a regular basis for faculty and staff to talk. In addition, faculty and staff who were involved in similar activities were giving a common planning period so that they could talk about common issues. A short newsletter was also published regularly to keep everyone informed.

Finally, and this is important, faculty and staff received training in communication skills. Not everyone has the same skills in communication, and those skills are not taught in most preservice teacher education programs. Girard and Koch (1996) provide some excellent guidance on improving communication skills among educators. Their guide, based on material developed by the National Institute for Dispute Resolution, demonstrates ways administrators, teachers, and support personnel can diagnose conflicts, and implement problem-solving strategies.

Collaboration

There must also be a collaborative spirit and atmosphere within the school. True collaboration goes beyond simple cooperation and involves all members of the school community working together collaboratively to achieve their common vision. This means that everyone shares responsibilities and resources, that faculty and staff are willing to change and exchange roles when necessary, and that concerns about territory and "turf" are set aside.

This can be a difficult step for some in the school to take. Positions, job descriptions, resources, titles, privileges, are all things that often have not been easily gained and are not easily relinquished. But, an atmosphere of collaboration must prevail. And it must not be mere lip service to collaboration. Everyone in the school must be truly committed to collaborative activities. For instance, teachers must be willing to share their classrooms with other teachers. Support staff must be willing to share their expertise and resources with the classroom teacher. Administrators must be willing to share their decision-making authority.

Villa and Thousand (1992) listed four stages to achieving collaboration:

FORMING

Initial trust-building skills needed to establish collaboration, members are presented and oriented to task, willingness to share ideas

FUNCTIONING

Communication and leadership skills that help manage and organize team activities so that tasks are completed and relationships are maintained

FORMULATING

Skills need to stimulate creative problem solving and decision-making, and create deeper comprehension of unfamiliar information

FERMENTING

Skills to manage controversy and conflict of opinions, search for more information, and stimulate revision & refinement of solutions

Collaboration can go against the grain of the educational structure and the training of school personnel. As a result, support may be necessary to give faculty and staff the skills in collaboration that they will need. But, true collaboration begins with everyone willing to talk and work together to accomplish their common vision.

Training

A final step in implementing change is training. Faculty and staff should not be expected to do what they have not been trained to do. McLaughlin and Warren (1992) noted that, "A critical area within restructuring is how to support the personnel who are confronted with massive changes associated with restructuring." Others (Foley and Mundschenk 1997; NCERI 1995; Mercery and Lane 1994) have also stressed the essential role of professional training and development.

In the lighthouse schools, faculty and staff determined what kind of training they needed and in what kind of format. Examples of our approach to this step included:

1. Mini workshops after school on selected topics;
2. Brown bag lunches of teachers sharing ideas;
3. Experts from the community as consultants;
4. Parents and university students providing release time;
5. Accessing information from the Internet;
6. A resource library of books and videos available for checkout;
7. Teachers mentoring one another.

Remember that training activities should flow naturally from the school's vision.

Conclusion

As we enter a new century we will see an ever-changing world, requiring a different kind of school. This new school will be more diverse, more technologically capable, more global, a school that can meet the challenges of tomorrow. To make this new

school a reality we must be able to master the process of change. Only then can we embrace the future and fulfill the promise for every student.

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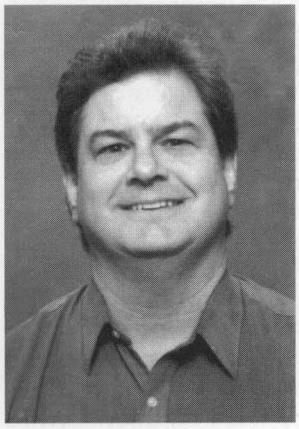
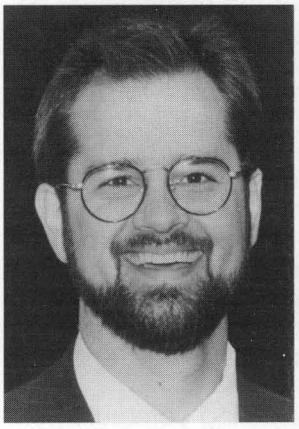
A Case Study Comparison of Compulsory and Voluntary Community Service Programs

Thomas E. Deering
Thomas D. Cavenagh



Thomas E. Deering is Professor and Chair of Education at Central Methodist College in Fayette, Missouri. He is a former high school teacher and school principal. His BS in Social Studies Education and his Ph.D. in Educational Foundations are from the University of Missouri-Columbia. He completed an MA in History at Southeast Missouri State University and an MA in Philosophy at the University of Illinois-Chicago. Deering has written extensively on a variety of educational topics.



Thomas D. Cavenagh is Associate Professor of Business Law and Conflict Resolution at North Central College in Naperville, Illinois. He graduated from Trinity College with a BA in Philosophy and completed his JD Degree at DePaul University College of Law. He is the co-author of *Alternative Dispute Resolution for Business* from West Publishing Company, and has published in a variety of professional journals.

Introduction

As colleges and universities seek ways to make learning a more rich and varied experience for today's students, innovations in pedagogy and content abound. Critical thinking, problem-based learning and experiential credit for learning in the work place are three such developments (Garside, 1996; Ram, Narayanan, & Cox, 1995; Trowler, 1996; Jackson, 1995). A fourth and very exciting development is service learning. Service learning engages students in community work projects of social significance and requires of them, following the service work, reflection and debriefing intended to develop an understanding of the social context and consequences of the project, as well as the implications for the student's education from such a project (O'Connell, 1985). Zlotkowski (1996) claims that linking service projects to a student's major increases the likelihood that a student will participate, and enhances the experience for those who do.

Proponents of service projects agree that students benefit in a number of ways from such programs. While students are providing a valuable service, they are also learning about their community and becoming more socially aware citizens (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Shumer and Belbas (1996) found four main benefits for those who participate in community service: 1) basic education, 2) vocational education, 3) participant development, and 4) life skills. Philanthropist Alan S. Feinstein agrees with proponents that community service provides significant benefits to participants, and he supports such efforts by offering financial incentives to universities to establish community service programs (Blumenstyk, 1993). Even university presidents such as Carol A. Cartwright (1996) are advocating community service by faculty. Cartwright, president of Kent State University, proposes that universities recognize that a faculty member's community service is as equally important as his or her teaching and research.

Service learning opportunities are structured in a number of ways. Some are voluntary: they are for-credit courses or co-curricular projects engaged in by students who wish to serve the community and learn as they do so (Rockingham, 1990 ; Macy, 1994). Other service learning opportunities are compulsory: students must satisfy a community service requirement to pass a course or to graduate from an institu-

tion (Dodge, 1990). Still other colleges and universities are incorporating service projects into freshman orientation programs or a first-year course of study (Cavenagh & Deering, 1995). Not surprisingly, students prefer to choose to engage in service projects and related learning as opposed to meeting a course or graduation requirement forcing them to engage in such work (Serow, 1990). However, when such projects are voluntary, students in significant numbers participate for personal aims rather than out of social concern (Winniford, Carpenter & Grider, 1995).

Research on Community Service

Coming to a general consensus on what is meant by community service is not difficult. Most involved in such programs agree it is students learning, developing, growing through participating in planned community service experiences supervised by adults. Activities can include cleaning vacant lots, painting and other maintenance work for the elderly, working in a shelter for the homeless, or any number of similar activities. Consensus has not been reached, however, on how to evaluate these programs. Hamilton (1981) found almost two decades ago that one of the major problem with how to determine the success of community service programs has to do with the variety of missions such programs can have. He did stress that only long-term study can determine the effect these programs have on participants. While researchers have the patience for long-term longitudinal studies, most of the individuals responsible for program development and implementation want results at the end of a semester or academic year.

Another problem with evaluating community service programs is the number of constituents they serve. Community service programs benefit both the students, faculty and staff providing the service, as well as those for whom the service is being provided. Furthermore, both the educational institution and the community agency involved have needs which the program tries to meet. Measuring and weighing the importance of each of these components makes evaluating the program difficult. This is especially so since different institutions will place more or less weight on each component of the program. An institution who's program is focused on nurturing (Lovitz & Noel, 1989) measures success differently than an institution who's primary purpose is to enhance a student's career opportunities. Likewise, a program based on citizenship as advocated by Gabelnick (1997) is evaluated differently than a program developed to improve student retention. While research does not show a consensus about evaluating community service programs, much can be learned from research about these programs.

What is known from research about community service programs can prove beneficial for those willing to look for a long-term community/institutional partnership instead of quick fixes to social or institutional problems. Among the lessons to learn from the research of others is the importance of planning. Durgin (1976) found that programs often times do not run as planned. This is due to the lack of foresight by those developing the program. Hence, unforseen "problems" often keep everyone working in a crisis mode. Moore (1982) also found that planning eliminates problems. Reflection, for example, an important element in enhancing the educational impact of the community service experience, rarely occurs unless it is a planned activity of the program. Without a reflection component to the program, the community service is often seen as one more "thing" in a student's school experience.

Significant attention also needs to be focused on supervision. According to Anderson and Drucker (1976) supervisors are often more concerned with quantity than with quality. This makes supervision and recording keeping is easier, but has little to do with ensuring that the experience is worthwhile. Finally, Hamilton (1981) noted that the role and function of the supervisors depends on the mission of the program. Before implementing a community service program, decisions need to be made about the role of the supervisors: will they serve as counselors, mentors, or teachers? Without a clear understanding of their role, it will be very difficult for supervisors to be successful, and this ambiguity can have negative consequences for the program.

This paper describes the experience of one institution with service learning of both a voluntary and compulsory nature. The paper describes the nature of the service learning opportunities in each area and assesses positive and negative outcomes from each. The paper concludes with suggestions for further study in the area and includes materials from service programs undertaken by the institution. While the value of service to the community cannot be disputed, how these programs are implemented and the learning experiences gained by the students involved does require close inspection.

Compulsory Community Service

North Central College has an undergraduate enrollment of approximately 1200 students; approximately 60% live on campus. The College is located west of Chicago and is close enough for easy access to the city. As a component of its freshman orientation program, all students are required to participate in a group community service project during the first weekend of the Fall term. A wide variety of service opportunities are available at the College thereafter. Indeed, the College operates a Community Service Center, which coordinates the efforts of all students engaged in community service projects under the aegis of the College. The Center is funded through federal grant resources and endeavors to match students wishing to serve with organizations seeking assistance.

"Into the Streets" is the title of the community service project required of all in-coming first-year students (approximately 320-350 students per Fall term). Through the program, students are sent to a wide

variety of local organizations, including park districts, forest preserves, battered women shelters, elder care facilities, inner-city schools and village social service agencies for a seven to eight hour work day. Students engage in work ranging from painting, clean-up and maintenance to visiting with and talking to handicapped children and seniors. The students are not compensated for their efforts, nor is the College. The College absorbs the cost of transporting the students to and from the work sites as well as lunch on the job. The organization benefiting from the service provides any materials needed to complete the work. Students are sent to their projects in orientation class groups of twelve to fourteen and accompanied by a team of instructors for the class which includes a faculty member, a student services staff member and an upper-class student teaching assistant.

Students participate in a brief preparatory session prior to the service project. During that time they discuss the precise project they will pursue, and they complete a brief pre-service reflection worksheet which lays the groundwork for reflection on the service before, during and after the project. They are advised that a number of objectives beyond philanthropy and class bonding are sought through the community service project (North Central College, 1994). These objectives are:

Develop a habit of critical reflection on experiences in life which enables one to learn throughout life;

Understand problems in a more complex way and acquire the ability to imagine many alternative solutions;

Strengthen the important ethic of social and civic response to human needs and problems;

Create a shared commitment to addressing the underlying problems behind a variety of thorny social issues;

Create sensitivity to how decisions are made and how institutional decisions affect people's lives;

Learn to respect other cultures and people more;

Learn through experience how to work collaboratively with other people on real problems;

Realize that one's life can make a difference.

Following the day of work students reflect, in their orientation groups, about the experience of community service. Students gave mixed reports on the success of the program. Many reported a tremendous sense of satisfaction and fulfillment, while other students reported a feeling that the project they engaged in was a waste of time and effort.

Voluntary Community Service

The voluntary community service program, which has a sizable and active group at North Central, is a project that involves sending students to tutor in elementary schools in a predominantly lower-class, black neighborhood on the west side of Chicago, and a predominantly lower-class Hispanic neighborhood in the western Chicago suburb of Aurora. The college students--fluctuating between 8 and 25 per year-- tutor in a variety of subjects at both schools, including reading, math and science; some tutoring is done in a bilingual mode. The project was started eight years ago by a College chapter of a national student group called Students In Free Enterprise (S.I.F.E.). The project has won acclaim for the North Central S.I.F.E. chapter, and has been a valuable resource for the elementary schools to which the tutors travel. Indeed, many education students have participated in the tutoring program and later have been hired to teach at one of the schools. The tutors are volunteers and can terminate their service without faculty or administration permission. The tutors receive neither pay nor course credit for their efforts.

Prior to tutoring, the college students are given information on the illiteracy problem facing major cities like Chicago and on the particular schools to which they will be traveling. They are encouraged to share their experiences in a variety of settings with other tutors and with the campus at large. While there was no formal assessment as to student outcomes, the volunteers spoke informally in a nearly uniform positive way about the value of the experience for the students they tutored as well as for themselves.

S.I.F.E. is responsible for a variety of other voluntary student service projects as well. One example is an elementary and high school student puppet show series. "There's a Whole World Out There" portrays the dynamics of international trade and cultural diversity through narration by a puppet in the Uncle Sam character. Other puppets dressed in ethnic costumes representing Germany, Mexico and Japan contribute to the program. The puppets promote cross-cultural acceptance and communicate why international trade is important to their countries. "Uncle Sam's Audit" is a humorous account of the national debt and deficit debate which raises the serious fiscal issues attendant to national spending in a way accessible to pre-college students. Finally, "Savings ... Seeds to Success" explains the importance of working for things one desires, responsibilities, staying in school, work ethics and saving money. S.I.F.E. has been recognized for this innovative community service program as well.

Conclusion

As Hamilton (1991) noted, only after conducting a long-term longitudinal study can it be determined, if either, or both of the two models discussed here has been successful. North Central College has not been operating the two programs long enough to make a determination on this issue. Although retention is not the primary purpose of the community service program at North Central, the College is collecting

retention data, and will make a determination of the impact the program has on student satisfaction and retention. There are, however, several preliminary conclusions we can draw from the college's experience with community service programs.

Follow-up conversations with students, faculty, and representatives from community agencies lead us to conclude that voluntary community service projects have a number of strengths. First, they are most likely to encourage thoughtful pre-project and post-project reflection, as only willing and anxious students participate. Second, they more likely result in genuine learning consistent with the aims listed above, as students participating want to make the projects a successful personal experience. Third, they likely produce more and better work for the service recipient organization in light of the fact that there are no unwilling participants. Fourth, the reputation of the providing institution is likely enhanced by willing and capable participants in ways and degrees not probable with compelled participants. Fifth, because of the reduced numbers and higher quality of the participants, the provider institution's costs are lower and the project administration is easier.

While the above are strengths of voluntary programs, the feedback from participants of North Central College's program identified a number of shortcomings. First, they attract the converted. One objective of community service projects is to inculcate civic responsibility. It appears that those who volunteer for community service projects already have such a trait. Second, participation will be far more limited, resulting in fewer organizations served and fewer institutional friends made.

After studying North Central College's compulsory community service project, it appears that such programs have both the strengths and weaknesses of voluntary programs. They do have large participation, do meet the needs of more organizations and do, arguably, convert some participants to a way of thinking more conducive to meaningful civic participation. They lack, however, all of the benefits listed above for the voluntary project, and they are unlikely to succeed at the same level. Furthermore, they raise two compelling ethical questions: first, may a college or university endeavor to change the values of its students? If a stated objective of the compulsory service project is to alter student's views on social responsibility and participation, the institution has undertaken a task which is different from its traditional role as an objective sanctuary where faculty and students search for truth. It is, instead, undertaking the role of values clarifier. Second, since community service projects are generally considered to be non-academic, and hence co-curricular in nature, does the college or university have the right to encroach on the time and personal freedom of the student by imposing a non-academic service requirement? This question is particularly compelling given the likelihood that today's student is probably working full or part time to pay for college at the same time he or she is taking and preparing for coursework and other co-curricular activities. These are serious questions and need to be addressed by all institutions considering establishing a community service program, be it voluntary or compulsory in nature.

Community service projects can take many forms and can encompass single or multiple experiences (Weinstein, 1994 ; White, 1994). Regardless of the model used, there are at least four principles that, based on the experience of community service programs at North Central College, need to be heeded:

Students should understand the need for and benefit resulting from their particular service project. Careful discussion prior to and after the service project, readings on civic involvement and interaction with people at the place of service can help develop this understanding.

Students should have some input in the choice of service sites and responsibilities if a service project is mandatory. A sense of ownership and consent is gained from the effort of soliciting and heeding student input on these matters.

Students should have an opportunity to assess the effectiveness of the service project as a learning experience. A pre- and post-survey on the project would assist in this effort and would enhance the experience measurably.

Students should be given projects that place them in contact with people to the greatest extent possible. Students more easily identified need, saw benefits from their labor and felt a greater sense of satisfaction when they worked with other human beings as opposed to cleaning and maintenance work.

Administrators of service learning programs must realize that not all projects will be meaningful, nor will all students participate meaningfully. To enhance the likelihood of success, they must be aware of the pitfalls which can endanger community service programs (Gardner, 1990). However, attempting to provide an experience consistent with the above four principles will significantly increase student participation and enhance student satisfaction, and improve the quality of the service provided to the community.

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"Ideas are like stars. We never reach them but,
like the mariners on the sea, we chart our course by them."

Carl Schurz

"To dream anything that you want to dream. That is the beauty of the human mind.
To do anything you want to do, that is the strength of the human will.
To trust yourself is to trust your limits. That is the courage to succeed."

Bernard Edmonds

The Influence of Knowledge on the Building of Conceptual Models

Patricia Belleville

Patricia Belleville received a BFA in Painting and Drawing at Northern Illinois University. Afterward she completed a Masters in Art and Teaching at the University of Louisville. She was an art teacher in the public schools teaching on Fort Knox in a Department of Defense elementary school. During this time she also taught in the early childhood program at Elizabethtown Community College. She received her doctoral degree at the University of Illinois before coming to teach at Easter Illinois University in 1996.

Abstract

This article examines the idea of knowledge-based categorization and its relationship to strategies used by art historians to categorize art. Knowledge-based categorization recognizes the use of theories by adults and children in constructing new concepts and relating knowledge to other fields. Knowledge representation theory also allows for the use and importance of taxonomies. These taxonomies allow for an organized way of looking at and discerning style for people who are familiar with these taxonomies. This presents the idea that children are not incapable of categorizing by style or using these taxonomies but, because of their experiences, they may bring different theories to the categorization process. Because art has a rich taxonomy, this suggests possibilities for studying how children and adults use this structure.

Art education has studied why children group things as they do based on Piagetian models of categorization. However, art education has not accounted for the post Piagetian research and the possibility that children bring their own knowledge base to sorting strategies.

Children come to school exposed to images through books, television, and their environment. They have related words and ideas to these images and have built an area of knowledge associated with images and their meaning. Awareness of domain knowledge will give educators information on how and when to approach the teaching of style. Educators may also use this information to organize the works of art children see in the curriculum.

Children and Categorization

Recent research acknowledges that categorization is one way children start making sense of the world from birth. Children construct hundreds of categories while they are years away from the logical and symbolic operations postulated by Piaget and Bruner (Markman, 1989). Most current developmental research agrees that there is no difference in the methods children and adults use to develop categories; the difference lies in their access to and use of domain knowledge that is common to a particular field.

Markman (1989) points out that the classical theories emphasize that children lack the knowledge or training abilities to categorize. This means that children are unable to analyze, test hypotheses and evaluate using relevant criteria. According to traditional theory, because of young children's inability to analyze artwork into consistent features, they would be unable to spontaneously recognize a cue such as style. Traditional theories point out that this leaves young children to use subject matter instead of style.

This tendency to categorize according to subject matter may not reflect an insensitivity to style so much as a preference for using subject matter as a basis for classification (Steinberg & DeLoache, 1986). Also, according to the above argument, children classify according to immediate perceptual features. The problem may not be with the fact that children cannot categorize according to style, but that they have no immediate understanding of the type of categorization they are supposed to do. Children may prefer to classify according to subject matter because it may be the most common strategy used in daily life. If this is true, then categorization by subject matter does not account for what children are actually "seeing" when they observe works of art.

Perception and Conceptual Categorization

When looking at a work of art the naïve viewer can create a number of possible categories by perceiving the characteristics of the artwork. Categorizing at the perceptual level is a process of identification: placing an object by the appearance of its defining characteristics into a certain class. The identification of the object involves a match between the properties of the object and the specifications of the category (Bruner,1956). Categorization of conceptual objects also involves the match of a set of objects to the specifications of a category. However, the difference between perceptual and conceptual categorization is the immediacy of exposure to attributes by which their match is determined. In the perceptual categorization process, the attributes are more immediately seen, e.g., an object of a certain color,

size, and shape can be seen as an orange, which enables us to easily judge the categorical identity of an object, at least in simple perceptual situations. This gives categorization by iconography an advantage, because an icon's perceptual attributes are more immediately seen.

Categorizing at the conceptual level on the other hand, takes into account knowledge that the novice viewer may not have and therefore requires a different strategy. Bruner (1956) gives an example of conceptual categorizing. The identification of a painting by Massaccio, or as a product of one of his students, requires the attainment of knowledge that is relevant to the field of art history. Bruner (1956) suggests that there are differences in the behavior of subjects operating with perceptual and conceptual categories and that this can be seen by examining the literature on this type of categorization. Bruner (1956) also suggests that the underlying process should be treated as common in the two activities and in the phenomena that lie in between. It is frequently the case that people develop the means of altering conceptual categories into categories that utilize more immediate perceptual cues. In identifying a particular painting, one may rely on its immediate appearance to give information about its period and country. By using this set of information, the viewer can then determine. However, any cognitive operation involving the grouping and regrouping of materials into equivalence classes is rendered more comprehensible once one has a better grasp of the category, as can be noted in de la Croix and Tansey's (1975) observations of how art historians use categories. The categorization by time-place-style then requires an understanding of this type of concept or category that generally comes only with some kind of inquiry or study.

Categorization in Art History

Two examples of categorization in art history are the traditional time-place-style method and the iconographic method. Each is outlined briefly here and together they provide a key to the kinds of categorization in the field of art (de la Croix and Tansey, 1975).

The chronological sequence in the history of the production of art is important to the time-place-style method of categorization. In this type of categorization, art is divided into periods of history, which have relationships to traditional historical periods. Art is also divided by its place of origin-- for example, by countries or regions. In the chronological sequence, art is also classified by influence and school.

Iconography emphasizes the study of subject matter and symbolism in works of art. In this type of categorization, the subject matter becomes the focus for categorizing artwork. Works of art are grouped together by theme rather than style. For example, works that have the crucifixion of Christ as their theme span a number of different styles and time periods, but they still can be categorized as a group.

Both of these are valid methods of categorization that are used by experts in the field. However, the idea of time-place-style is the structure for most art history classes. Time-place style attributes are not necessarily immediately perceived as similar; they may require additional information that lets the viewer know why they are placed in this category.

Knowledge Representation Theory

There are times when similarity does not explain why we have the categories we do. There are some categories that encompass dissimilar examples or instances. An example would be abstract expressionist painting. DeKooning and Pollack perceptually do not share similar features; knowledge of their relationship goes beyond what is accounted for perceptually. People are able to classify highly dissimilar objects into new categories. Barsalou (1983) suggests that "ad hoc" categories have graded memberships, but the categories are not based on similarity, and the features of the object may consist of what we know about that object. Classification and similarity judgments can have different patterns of responses. This may be because knowledge of items such as production and purpose keeps it from being classified in a certain way. The functions of categories go beyond what is accounted for by similarity. Classifications by people need to allow for flexible use of knowledge.

Knowledge categorization is knowledge dependent and attempts to include as much domain knowledge as possible. There are four parts to the knowledge representation theories (Cohen & Murphy, 1984; Wisniewski & Medin, 1994):

Part One. The first part is a generation of attributes and quantities of attributes. Experts in the domain would be able to provide a set of attributes. Our dependence on attributes and attribute quantities explains why someone can learn a great deal about a concept just by learning what type of concept it falls under. As an example, knowing that Impressionism is a type of painting leads us to infer that Impressionism is a style category and a school of painting, that it involves the use of paint and is created on a flat surface, and so on. However, like all taxonomies, this one is not always perfect instead it could be considered as flexible knowledge that can be revised in the face of new information and can adapt to exceptions or atypical cases.

Wollheim (1929) identified groupings in art history based on experts' generation of attributes. Wollheim (1929) called these various groups of style general style. General style, according to Wollheim (1929), includes universal styles such as: classicism, the painterly style, and geometric style; period or historical styles, which include neo-classicism, International Gothic, and Art Nouveau; and school styles which include Giottesques, Norwich school, and style of the Nazarenes.

As they identify general styles, historians employ a shorthand for a set of characteristics that they find particularly interesting, arresting and innovative in

that period of art. Wollheim (1929) gives an example of Baroque, a period style that refers to a body of work to which some of the following features apply: strong chiaroscuro, forceful movement, liveliness of touch, recession, diagonal composition, deletion of defined volume, heady emotionalism, and sensitivity to represented texture. General style is a form of classification that organizes work according to attributes this meets the criteria for the first part of knowledge theory.

Part Two. The second part of knowledge theory involves selecting a subset of features that are relevant to this concept and are based on a taxonomy of knowledge that supports these attributes. This taxonomy would specify the relations between different attribute quantity sets and between attribute quantities for a given feature. The quantities listed for a particular feature would be known to be mutually exclusive alternatives, since an object generally cannot have two quantities filling the same role. An example would be that the features Impressionism, France, and 1865-1890 would not be included in another group of paintings.

Quantities for different attributes may be statistically correlated. Theories of category learning have emphasized statistical dimensions of features. The significance of a feature is based on its frequency among members of that category. Feature frequency is important because it is strongly related to two basic concepts: classification and prediction. There may be causal, numerical, functional, logical, or perceptual dependencies between quantities. What is most important is that quantities for a given role may be ordered by typicality.

Feldman (1973) notes that style can refer to a particular historical period, a national or regional art, an individual artist, or a certain technical approach; it can also exist as a term of approval of popular style of fashion. Feldman feels that all of these categories have one purpose, and that is to make it easier to talk about and understand art. Styles of art can be thought of as families, and family traits make a classification of groups of art possible. The unifying element for this classification may be visual -- such as the use of color, shape, space, or line -- or qualitative, meaning that the work is grouped based on an overall feeling of the work, a global quality that frequently constitutes the basis for classification. Feldman notes that we need to know the traits that place the work in a particular category.

Part Three. The third part of knowledge theory is that attributes do not accept arbitrary quantities; rather, they are restricted to particular quantities. Learning involves selecting a subset of features from this space that are relevant to the category. Generally, particular quantities are derived from family resemblance as specified by Rosch & Mervis (1975). The degree of family resemblance is computed by counting the number of features an instance has in common with other instances and subtracting the number it shares with non-instances of the concept. Individual style is a form of explanation. This form helps to explain how a given painting by a painter, who has a style of his or her own, looks the way it does, or how two paintings painted by the same artist look alike. It also explains how paintings by two different artists, each with a unique style, look different.

Wollheim (1929) uses a second conception of style, called individual style, which is the style of the individual painters. This explains how an artist's work shares a family resemblance yet still retains a unique look. Individual style may share general style characteristics associated with each style. However, the characteristics associated with individual style do not alter. To identify an individual style, the viewer also employs a shorthand for those characteristics that are important to it. The individual style, while it shares certain general style characteristics, remains distinct from the general style characteristics associated with it. Wollheim (1929) points out that individual style is always associated with a particular artist; it has a psychological and a psycho-motor. Wollheim points out that individual style does not explain all the peculiarities, similarities, or dissimilarities of a single picture, only the ones that have style as their origin.

Part Four. The fourth part of knowledge theory in classification is based on matching. Items are classified by comparing the item's features with those of the category. The certainty or degree that an item belongs to a category is some function of the item's features that match and mismatch those in the category. That means that the object can fulfill the function typically associated with the category. In some cases, this will be directly represented in function or used for roles. For example, for the concept of dinner plate, one might look for a flat surface on which to place food. If an artist raises the surface, this would not be considered typical of the object plate, therefore the object would not fulfill its function and would fall into a novel category of plates. Barsalou (1983) showed that people agreed on typicality for novel groupings. This demonstrates that people judge typicality by using their knowledge of categories rather than using prestored characteristic quantities.

Knowledge theory is strongly based on the organization of the taxonomy, and art has a taxonomy in place that matches the requirements for the different parts of knowledge theory. Because style has been the focus of categorization studies, knowledge of the taxonomic structure is important. It gives us an idea of whether we want categorization by broad general characteristics that requires less domain knowledge or by individual artist style, require more domain knowledge for categorization. This means that researchers would need to be aware of the levels of the taxonomy at the superordinate, basic, and subordinate levels.

Taxonomy of Art

Taxonomies are often divided into levels: superordinate, basic, and subordinate groupings.

Superordinate categories are more general and

include objects that are diverse. At the superordinate level, it is more difficult to perceive similarities among objects in the same category. Examples of superordinate categories would be painting, architecture, and sculpture.

Basic-level categories provide a compromise between two different goals of categorization. They maximize similarity between category members and they minimize similarity with members of other categories. The general style characteristics noted by Wollheim (1929) are style differences that would follow the rule for basic categories. They would maximize the differences between other stylistic periods and minimize the difference between individual style features.

At the subordinate level, categories are more specific than basic and include objects that are quite similar. The subordinate categories do not contrast well with each other and are perceived to be more similar. Individual style fits the description of subordinate levels of categorization. Individual style keeps the features associated with general style, yet also retains its identity or signature of the individual artist. Categorization at this level would be more difficult. Viewers need to look beyond the general characteristics of the style and look for the characteristics of an individual's style.

Most learning occurs at the basic level (Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson, & Boyes-Braem, 1976; Markman, 1989; Hirsch,1988). This is the level at which categories are the most differentiated. The difference between Impressionists, Surrealists, and Abstract Expressionist are at the basic level. Each of these schools of art has different defining attributes that makes it distinct. When we take an art history course, the course is divided up into basic category levels, such as the High Renaissance and Impressionism. Inside these periods, we learn to identify characteristics of the period.

High Renaissance and Impressionism, however, share features of the superordinate category, paintings: two dimensional surface, use of paint, installation on walls, use of art elements, and so on. The subordinate features of these schools would contain individual artists.

Renoir, Monet, and Degas are a subordinate group of Impressionists. The differences between these artists is not as great as the differences between Renoir, Pollack, and Dali. The categorization of these artists at the subordinate level could rely to a certain extent on the subject of their paintings, as each has preferences in the subject matter or technique used in his art. This would require domain knowledge that may not be available to the novice viewer.

The requirements for categorization are different at different levels of this hierarchy. Categorization requires less knowledge at the basic level and more knowledge at the subordinate level. For example, when viewing examples of Impressionism, Abstract Expressionism, and Romanticism, it is easy to make stylistic distinctions because the similarities between categories are minimized. As people learn more about the features associated with each category, they can start making finer distinctions. Rosch et al. (1976) suggests that experts can make finer distinctions based on their knowledge and this knowledge enables experts to use more specific categories.

Conculsion

Style is a defining aspect of art, however, art education has not determined how style is defined or thought of by children. Instead of being an immediate part of young children's curriculum, art education leaves the teaching of style until later. Categorization by style should be a reasonable task for young children since they make hundreds of categories by the time they are in school and know that categories are flexible.

Art needs to be separated into taxonomic levels that emphasize stylistic categories when presented into the classroom. Teachers and researchers should be aware of what taxonomic level art work falls at when grouped together and they should teach style based on the taxonomic level. Theoretically, basic level categories of style should be the easiest for young children to understand.

When looking at a work of art a teacher could more precisely define the features of a style if at a basic and subordinate level there were defining attributes. When learning these attributes how would young children use this knowledge to make predictions about an unknown piece of art? How would the domain knowledge they would bring to art work affect their ability to make art categories? Art education needs to consider its role in developing domain knowledge about style in the art curriculum.

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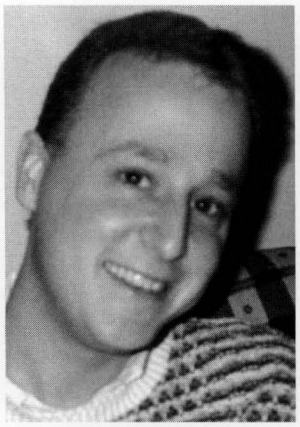
The Effects of Student-Directed Learning on Motivation: Creating Relevancy in a Secondary Science Classroom

Bradley Greenspan



Bradley Greenspan teaches biology and chemistry at Niles North High School, Skokie, Illinois. He received his BS in Secondary Education from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign and his M.Ed. in Curriculum and Instruction from National-Louis University, Evanston, Illinois. Greenspan was recently chosen to participate in a workshop at Northwestern University which was designed to stimulate interest in science among minority and low-income students. His area of focus revolves around influencing student motivation in science and methodology which increases motivation.

Abstract

A study done at the University of Georgia and Mercer University by Dr. Mary Atwater, Dr. John Wiggins and Dr. Catherine Gardner (1995) showed that only 25% of high school students surveyed showed a positive attitude in science. This statistic is alarming. Secondary science teachers need to have one of their goals be to increase motivation towards learning science. Theodore Sizer (1992) claims that one extremely effective method of increasing student motivation is allowing them to take part in projects which they find personally relevant. Student-directed learning is clearly a way to achieve this. In a regular level biology class, a student-directed learning project was designed and aimed at giving students a democratic approach to teaching. Students were organized into cooperative groups, and were allowed to research, design and implement their own science project. The study was focused on the idea that when students were allowed to negotiate their own curriculum, they found more relevancy in it. This, in turn, helped increase motivation towards further learning of science for these students.

In a study done by Dr. Mary Atwater, Dr. John Wiggins and Dr. Catherine Gardner (1995) at the University of Georgia and Mercer University, only 25% of the 7, 650 high school students surveyed showed a positive attitude towards science as measured by the Simpson-Troost Attitude Instrument. Science educators become understandably frustrated when these kinds of statistics are released. This enthusiastic attitude towards science is described by as "attentive-to-science" attitude. This attitude is characterized by "a desire to take more science courses, to continue reading about science, to explore new scientific concepts, and to be involved in science-related social issues" (Atwater, Wiggins, and Gardner, 1995, p. 666).

In order for this to occur, curriculum which allows students to have a crucial role in learning, and allows them to be challenged by complex tasks, needs to be created. Sizer claims that engaging students by having them actively involved in the learning process fosters motivation since "most students want to be taken seriously and enjoy the success of actively meeting challenges" (Sizer, 1984, p. 112). However, research has shown that *what* students are engaged in is as important to student motivation as the mere fact that they are engaged. Too often, science curriculum is taught in a manner which has no relevance to a student of high-school age. Students need to be learning material that connects to the real world in some way. Sizer states that "there is little connection between the student's world and material presented in class. Our experience has shown that students will be more motivated and will remain engaged when they work at things worthy of

their own interest" (Sizer, 1992, p. 156). Educational consultants and professors Raymond Wlodkowski and Margery Ginsberg (1995) summarize this idea by stating that one of the conditions necessary in enhancing motivation is the constant creating of challenging experiences that include student interest, perspectives, and values, and how they connect to the student's world.

Conducting A Student-Directed Project

In a regular level biology classes, the effects of a student-directed learning project on motivation and enjoyment of learning were examined. The goal of the project was to have it be hands-on, collaborative, and relevant to the real world. In a continuing effort to make science material more relevant and comprehensible for students, this project focused on having students devise a question about a specific unit/topic, design a basic experiment to answer the question, work in groups of six, perform certain cooperative roles to run the experiment, be responsible for researching their topic and discussing relevant background information using all of the following: journals, encyclopedias (Cd-Rom), e-mail with professionals, the internet, books and magazines. The focus question was, "When students are allowed to control WHAT and HOW they learn, are they more likely to find relevancy and meaningful comprehension with material?" With increased relevancy, research shows that students will be more motivated to learn science.

The project was a collaborative, cooperative group project. Appropriate roles for student were designated, and each student was required to perform each role. Roles were designated as follows:

Roles A and B: Responsible for gathering necessary information from CD-Rom, e-mail, internet, journals, or encyclopedias.

Roles C and D: Responsible for being the secretaries for the group. They will be responsible for writing the written report. Collaboration with other students will be necessary in order to get appropriate data and information.

Roles E and F: Will be responsible for setting up experiment, making necessary adjustments throughout the experiment, and collecting and analyzing data.

These groups did not remain fixed. A log, documenting which students performed respective roles, was kept. In this way, each student in the group was certain to perform each role. That is, each student was required to do some background research, contribute to the written report, and set up or conduct an experiment. In addition, students had to communicate with each other even between roles. In order for each group to do their roles effectively, data had to be discussed, changes needed to be decided on collaboratively, and knowledge gained was needed to be constantly shared.

Results

One excellent form of data collection relies on the expertise and confidence of the teacher to trust his/her own judgment. This form of data collection is that of the recording and analysis of observations. Throughout the course of the project, a conscious effort was made to write down as many observations regarding student involvement, interest, and participation of the student-directed projects.

A group consisting of Brianne, Carolina, Marina, Marjie, and Rachel was found to be a perfect group to examine on the first day of the projects because they seemed quite flustered with the idea of determining their own project idea. Instead, they tried to insist that a research project be assigned to them. By the second day, however, they had not only come up with an idea, but one which they seemed very excited about. They wanted to test different soaps and the ability to kill bacteria. After the first two days of starting the project, the following paragraph was written in a research notebook.

"When I approached this group, they were smiling and had many notes written on paper in notebooks. I concluded my visit to the group by not only commenting how much I appreciated the participation by all group members (every member spoke at least once), but advised them to "look when we go to the library on what bacteria you could use, and what kinds of product testing has been done on soaps. Maybe that could give you ideas as to what soap to try and what bacteria to use." They all agreed, and smiled in apparent pride of their accomplishment."

Many more days, dispersed throughout the regular curriculum, were given for the students to work on their projects. The behavior of this group never changed. Throughout the set-up day of the project, the group was observed constantly interacting and discussing the project. On subsequent work days, several of the group members could be seen counting bacteria colonies, with the remaining students were writing down data. Group roles were given, so the student performing the particular jobs would differ from day to day. This group thus appeared to be one of the hardest working groups. On December 4, 1997 (three weeks before the projects were to be completed) the entire group agreed to discuss their progress:

Me: "How is the project going?"
(All): "Fine, good....."
Rachel: "I think it's really cool."
Me: "Why?"
Rachel: "Because this actually affects us. If we get positive results for certain soaps, we know not to use them. They aren't as effective."
Me: "So, explain to me why that is important to you."
Marina: "Well, it's like I know I want to be as clean as possible, so I am not going to use this (shows bacteria plate) Herbal Essence soap, because...well, look at

it." (Bacteria plate is covered with bacteria)
Brianne: "I think the project is cool because we actually got to find out what soaps we shouldn't use, and that's important to everyone."
Carolina: "Yeah, I like the project because it was hard for us to come up with a project idea, but now that we did, we chose something that was simple but interesting."
Me: "What makes it interesting for you?"
Carolina: "Well, we did it ourselves."
Marina: "Yeah, we got to look at the test results for ourselves. We didn't just get it off the internet or out of some book."
Me: "You liked doing it yourself then, as opposed to getting the information through research?"
Rachel: "I did. It is more real that way."
Me: "Good. I am glad that you see why your project is relevant and real. Marjie, do you agree?"
Marjie: "Yeah....I think it might have been easier at first for you to pick our topic, but know that we have done it ourselves, it is much more fun."

This interview taught a great deal about the effects of student-directed learning on relevancy. One of the many recommendations for effective curriculum is one which "allows students to explore in a hands-on format topics which they feel are personally relevant. These tend to be topics which help the student connect the "scientific" world to their own world" (Sizer, 1992, p. 156). In addition, he claims that "allowing students to negotiate and perform their own curriculum will help them choose topics which they will feel are more relevant to them, motivating them to learn" (Sizer, 1992, p. 156). This group proved this and other ideas in the interview.

First, they showed the value of hands-on learning. Throughout the interview, they were smiling, and constantly wanted to show their petri dishes. All students spoke, and all clearly participated. This was a group that truly benefitted from being allowed to conduct their own experiment. Marina claimed that she preferred this type of project instead of looking it up in research books, which demonstrates Sizer's (1992) ideas of the importance of hands-on learning. Students like Marina tend to benefit from being allowed to actively learn instead of passively learn.

Secondly, all students made comments about the project being "interesting" or "fun", which demonstrated that students were "attentive-to-science." Rachel, Marina and Carolina all made statements referring to the idea that they could "use" the information they had in the future. Marina even claimed that she now knows not to use Herbal Essence soap. Clearly, the ideas stated by educator John Ingram (1987) are true. He discusses that when students are allowed to negotiate their curriculum, they develop intrinsic motivation because they can plan their own goals, and work on ideas they feel are personally relevant.

Another major idea that evolved from the interview with this group came from Marjie's final comment. She stated that she, at first, found it difficult to choose a topic and would have preferred to have a project assigned to her. Many other students also expressed this type of frustration. After working on the project, though, Marjie found it to be more fun and interesting to devise her own project. Clearly, conducting a student-directed learning unit is not something that can occur quickly. Educators engaging in such activities need to be willing to give students time to think, analyze and (in some cases) complain before they begin work. Eventually, as made evident by Marjie's statement, they can get through the difficult planning stages. In the end, there is a strong chance that they will find that determining their own ideas allowed for a much more personally relevant project, which aids in making the project more fun and interesting.

The amount of positive comments received from student journals and interviews indicated that they are ready for a challenge such as student-directed learning projects. Success in these projects, though, cannot occur by magic. Students need to be exposed to student-directed learning continuously from an early age. They need to practice with the failures and successes that student-directed learning can bring. As stated by Alfie Kohn:

After years of being told to do what you are told....students cannot be expected to just take responsibility for the way things are. I have heard teachers give up (student-directed learning), saying 'children cannot behave responsibly', then remove all further opportunity for students to practice and grow in such responsible behavior. I have also heard teachers say 'children cannot think for themselves' and proceed to do all the thinking for them" (1993, p. 17).

Only then, with repeated exposure, will students begin to feel more confident, less afraid of challenge, and more willing to work on their own, personally relevant projects, without the need for extrinsic motivators such as grades. Success requires that the educator be willing to do what these students did-experiment!

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Project WOW: Rivers Connecting Communities of Learners

Judith A. Barford

Judith A. Barford is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Early Childhood, Elementary, and Middle Level Education at Eastern. She taught elementary grades K-5 plus LD classes for a number of years. At Eastern, Barford has taught courses in the teacher preparation curriculum, specifically the social studies methods courses, as well as a required computer course. Barford's research interests include teacher education, technology, and curriculum for critical democracy.

The education of teachers has been a focus issue in quests for school reform throughout the 1990's. The decade began with the publication of Teachers for Our Nations Schools (Jossey-Bass, 1990). This massive five year study of the education of educators by John Goodlad and associates at the Center for Educational Renewal, University of Washington, found that conditions then current in teacher education did not promote the testing of new ideas for the nation's classrooms. Instead programs for teacher education guaranteed that the status quo in the nation's classrooms would be protected (Goodlad, 1990, p. 185). The study recommended that candidates in teacher education be assured of "exemplary schools for internships and residencies" (p. 192).

In 1996, a second landmark study, What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future was published by the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future. Prominent among this commission's recommendations was that schools of education "allow course work to be connected to extended practice...ideally in professional development schools (PDS) that, like teaching hospitals in medicine, have a special mission to support research and training" (Darling-Hammond, 1996b, p. 197). Professional development schools, seen as pivotal in the improvement of practice problem, were described as genuine collaborations between colleges of education and local school districts. University faculty, teachers, and teachers in training would experiment jointly in new ways to teach. For PDS sites to be effective a "new cadre of teaching assistants" would need to be drawn into the school to "free teachers to do the kind of experimentation and development needed" (Kennedy, 1991, p. 664). This article reports a recent project involving a professional development school and a college of education. In accord with PDS goals, the purpose of the project was professional development, improvement of pedagogy, and advancement of children's learning.

PROJECT WOW

Project WOW (Wonders of Water/ Rivers) was conceived and implemented by PDS teachers Kathy Miller and Lou Conwell at Carl Sandburg School, Charleston, IL, and assisted by Judy Barford, assistant professor, Department of Early Childhood, Elementary, and Middle Level Education, College of Education and Professional Studies, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, IL. At this time, the local PDS project is in its second year. Benchmarks for school/university partnerships in PDS initiatives are the thrust toward learning community and thoughtful collaboration (Darling-Hammond, 1996a, p. 9; 1996b, p. 197; Kennedy, 1991, p. 664). Project WOW reflects the continuing planning, revision, and input of two teachers and their students at Carl Sandburg School and of social studies methods students and their professor at Eastern Illinois University. The day-by-day unfolding and renewal of collaborative professional development and the development of pedagogy necessitate the narrative form of this report (Casey, 1995).

The story of Project WOW proceeds from its inception by Miller and Conwell in the summer of 1997 to the distribution of the project product, the WOW CDs, in August, 1998, and through project revision and continuation for the current, 1998-1999 school year. Project goals and processes enabled 15 teams of third and fourth graders facilitated by 23 senior social studies methods students to spend several months researching 15 of the world's major rivers. Phases of the project included direction and compilation of student research, coordination and technology training of children and their facilitators, the teacher education students enrolled in ELE3340, social studies methods. River teams' findings were presented first in the linear ClarisWorks 4.0 (Claris Corporation, 1995) slide show format and then in multidimensional HyperStudio stacks (HyperStudioRoger Wagner Publishing, Inc., 1998). CDs were pressed with all 15 HyperStudio rivers stacks as the final project product. The project depended upon overcoming many unforeseen obstacles and willingness to keep our eyes on the twin prizes, professional development and the improvement of pedagogy. The work of the project was driven by the gamble, the professional momentum and personal thrills of the collaborative opportunities.

EARLY STAGES

For the 1997-1998 school year, Charleston Community Unit District #1 elected to fund technology integrated models in education (TIME) grants. Kathy Miller, third grade teacher, and Lou Conwell, fourth grade teacher, conceived Project WOW in response to the request for proposals. The teachers planned to incorporate several best-practice emphases (TIME grant & NCATE, 1997):

- varied problem-based groupings
- cross curriculum connection in several subject areas
- rich use of several technology tools
- multiple student assessment strategies
- teacher collaboration
- replicability
- long term implementation

Miller and Conwell chose world water resources as an issue-based curriculum theme to promote critical thinking, problem solving, and discernment of information across several subject areas. Drawing upon Carl Sandburg School's PDS affiliation with Eastern Illinois University, the teachers envisioned the participation of pre-service teachers as facilitators and research guides. The teachers designed the project according to a four-fold vision described in the proposal.

Student roles

> Working in teams, students will solve research problems and trouble-shoot technological problems as they create multi-media products..The ultimate goal is to produce life-long learners who can work together, share information, and solve problems. (Miller & Conwell, 1997)

Teacher roles

> ...Teachers will plan, gather equipment, and coordinate specific training sessions for parents, teachers, and pre-service teachers. These individuals will in turn help guide students as they explore the different technologies, collect information, and finalize research projects. The role of teachers will also be to teach metacognitive and self-evaluative skills, so that students can begin to assess what they need to learn in order to solve problems or create products. (Miller & Conwell, 1997)

Activities

> In Project WOW, students will cycle through the stages of project development such as information collection, project design, familiarity with the tools of each program, and final construction of the multimedia projects. Underlying these processes will be choices and problem-solving... (Miller & Conwell, 1997)

Use of tools

> ...For product creation, students will use the following applications: ClarisWorks, including word processing, draw, spreadsheet, and slide show options, and HyperStudio for developing the text and format of the projects. A digital camera, scanner, video camera, and laser disk player will be available for importing images. In addition, a CD-R will be utilized to create student products onto CDs for students, parents, EIU participants, and interested others. Electronic research tools for gathering information will be the World Wide Web, our class home pages, encyclopedias, CDs and CU-See Me video conferences specifically with scientists at the Tennessee Aquarium. E-mail will be used by students to gather and share information.... (Miller & Conwell, 1997)

The teachers identified multiple subject area links to district curriculum profiles, strategies for student assessment, collaboration, replicability, and dissemination. A project time line was created to span 28 weeks using approximately one school day per week for Project WOW. Fifteen rivers were selected to include all the continents of the world: Amazon, Mississippi, Volga, Nile, Congo, Yangtzee, Huang, Darling, Danube, Thames, Rhine, Yukon, MacKenzie, Indus, and Ganges.

PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

The grant was funded. By mid-fall, 1997, the students had selected their top three rivers and were organized into heterogeneous WOW teams with third and fourth graders, boys and girls, and multiple intelligences represented on each team. Team building activities were implemented. Students had written in response to "What do I know about water?" and "What do I want to know about water?" To provide baseline familiarity with their river, teams had researched the precise location of the river, its direction of flow, source, mouth, length, etc. Results of these exercises were stored in Project WOW folders created for each student.

EIU comes aboard

It was decided that one class of social studies methods students would spend one 75 minute class period per week during the spring semester working with the WOW teams. Objectives were

- propose the purposes of WOW to the social studies methods students
- use the rivers theme to develop their abilities in creation of value-based social studies curriculum
- transform their understanding of the cultures, history, geography, and science of the rivers into enhancement of student-centered research
- implement assessment strategies
- train the EIU students in the slide show and HyperStudio technology
- conclude the semester with the finished HyperStudio rivers stacks, full Project WOW CDs to be pressed over the summer

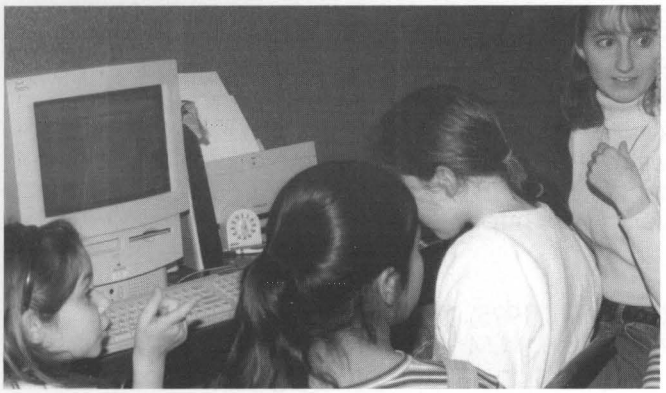
The social studies methods students agreed that Project WOW/ Rivers would be an important thing to do. The students proposed the following justifications: Project WOW would be

• a cooperative investigation of themed social studies topics.
• Research strategies would be developed for children and EIU facilitators alike.
• New technology would be used to present and share learning.
• Understanding of rivers as life lines of communities and civilizations would increase.
• Understanding that rivers connect us to each other in many ways both actual and symbolic would increase.

EIU students chose their rivers and wrote a rationale for the study of the river. This necessitated the first of many negotiated rubrics for the emergent curriculum that characterized the fusing of senior methods curriculum with the school-based technology integrated WOW model throughout the semester. The twenty-five point rubric for the rivers rationale was

• strength of argument in favor of the integrated study of the river, ending with a value statement
• meaningful quotes from five references
• examples of specific topics and ideas related to the course social studies model
• evidence of thoughtfulness and significant beginning research

EIU student, Katy Uphoff, plays her Gandhi Board game with her global hero team.



The Indus River team at work.

• accurate mechanics for text and reference list

Constructivist, collaborative learning (White, 1996; Rose and Winterfeldt, 1998) was demonstrated throughout the semester at the school and at other sites. For example, in one half day session in the Charleston Middle School media lab, the third and fourth graders, their classroom teachers, the EIU facilitators, their professor— the entire project group of nearly 80 people—gathered to work at 20 computers for several hours.

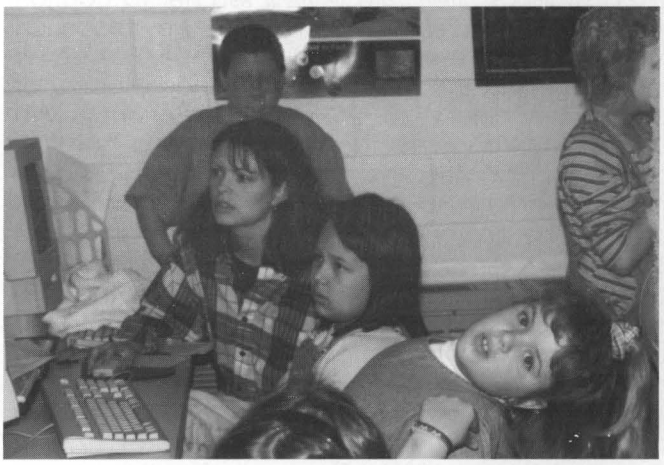
Parents assisted teachers in creating a photo and graphics folder for the desktop of each WOW computer. These folders contained dozens of animals and other scenes related to the rivers and requested by the student teams for importing into their stacks. In addition to the computer products, WOW teamwork involved resource collection, formal lesson planning, and games created by the social studies methods students to support the children's review of significant river content. As research continued children's rivers folders were organized. WOW sessions ended with the children completing brief self-evaluation sheets. The EIU facilitators completed an evaluation form reflecting upon the progress of each team member during the session.

The CU-See Me video conference with the Tennessee Aquarium took place. An EIU chemistry class planned eight water stations and hosted these for the WOW children at the school. All fifty third and fourth graders rotated through these eight water science experiences on another successful WOW day. At EIU the social studies class reached consensus on rubrics for the river Claris slide show, a river bookmark file, and for personal homepages which would include information about WOW . Each EIU WOW participant developed and posted a homepage.

EVALUATION FROM ELE3340, SOCIAL STUDIES METHODS

At semester's end, the college participants wrote in response to four summative questions:

1. What aspects of the WOW project were beneficial to you regarding your opportunities for interaction with students and teachers?



The Mackenzie River team at work.

2. What aspects of the WOW project were beneficial to you regarding your technology skills and teaching with technology?
3. Reflect upon the "environment" of the project and its appropriateness for a social studies methods experience.
4. What changes in the project would you suggest should we be able to continue to offer a WOW section of ELE3340 next semester?

Responses cited benefits: positive communication, group/ team decision making, privilege of seeing master teachers at work and creatively handling difficult situations, continuous and thoughtful reorganizing so as to move toward process goals and products, the satisfaction of having stayed with something that was "hard work" and seeing the payoffs, knowledge that their contributions were integral to the success of the project, feeling the power of the technology that they now have at hand. "I loved the way we were learning right along with the kids and the teachers," wrote one respondent. Recommended changes included loosening up the time constraints, receiving more feedback on their facilitator performance with teams, having the children move ahead on their own between WOW meetings. Summative questions will be mailed in January, 1999, to the WOW participants who have been student teaching, Fall, 1998. They will be asked to report how experiences with Project WOW pertained and how Project WOW experiences may have been helpful during student teaching.

CONCLUSION

Stallings (1990, p. 251) writes that most of the research in the area of efforts to join university and school resources for professional development of professors and teachers and for the development of pedagogy is in fact descriptive rather than empirical. At the time of her writing, only three professional development schools could be found which had "collected systematic qualitative and/or quantitative baseline data, so that they could estimate changes resulting from model intervention" (Stallings, 1990, p. 262). Stallings' literature review led her to caution that colleges and schools can spend "way too much time designing elaborate relationships that never really (get) off the ground before their window of opportunity closes" (p. 262). Our experience with Project WOW suggests that it is precisely a "window of opportunity" perceived by either of the PDS partners (school or college) which invites concrete action. The power of PDS partnerships is illusory until action is taken to implement mutually beneficial pedagogy with, for, and, authentically by the children, the pre-service teachers, the teachers, and the professors. As others engaged in PDS initiatives have modeled (Kochan & Kunkel, 1998), we "continually examine what we are doing" in order to build "continuous renewal into our efforts" (Freire, 1970 in Kochan & Kunkel, 1998). Time and effort is rewarded by professional and pedagogical growth. The authenticity and validity of teacher training taking place in constructivist classrooms guided by highly skilled teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1996a) offsets the necessary rigors of continuous organization and assessment. In Project WOW, the independence and interdependence of the children come first. Their growing confidence in their learning and team leadership are at the forefront of our efforts.

Though grant funding is over, WOW is reorganized and rolling along for this school year. Because of a change in district attendance centers, Mrs. Conwell now teaches a third grade so that the project is made up of two third grades, rather than a third and a fourth grade. The teachers considered that the rivers theme may be beyond challenge level for first semester third grade researchers so the WOW theme was changed. Rather than Wonders of Water/ Rivers, we have changed the base of our acronym and are working with Wonders of Wisdom/Global Heroes. Two global heroes were selected in each of the eight multiple intelligence categories (Checkley, 1997). Sixteen third grade WOW teams with their EIU facilitators are researching such role models as Gandhi, Mozart, Jefferson, and Sacajawea (Denenberg, 1997). Team formation and team activities have been driven in part by the ideas of Gelb (How to think like Leonardo da Vinci, 1998). The new group of ELE3340 social studies methods students began the fall, 1998, semester assisting the children's writing of autobiographies and autobiographical Claris slide shows and HyperStudio stacks. Global heroes research has begun in earnest. Facilitators developed "BioBoxes" (biography boxes) with their teams. Building on the research, global hero stacks will be created during the spring semester. This summer the new WOW CDs will consist of autogiography stacks for each child and each EIU facilitator, linked as authors and facilitators to the respective global hero stack created by their team.

Our ideal is to associate as a "community of learners in which all are teachers and all are learners" (Senge, 1990, in Kochan & Kenkel, 1998). We are once again living in the exciting environment of emergent, constructivist curriculum. Carl Sandburg students and their teachers and student teachers, parents, EIU social studies methods students and professor, originally connected by the rivers, remain connected and developing communities of learners.

If you are interested in acquiring more information about Project WOW, contact Judy Barford at http://www.eiu.edu/~cfjab/ or Kathy Miller at klmiller@charleston,k12,il.us or Lou Conwell at lconwell@charleston.k12.il.us. For more information about school / university partnerships at Eastern Illinois University, visit http://139.67.27.251.

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The Stockman Institute: Update

William C. Hine, Dean
School of Adult and Continuing Education

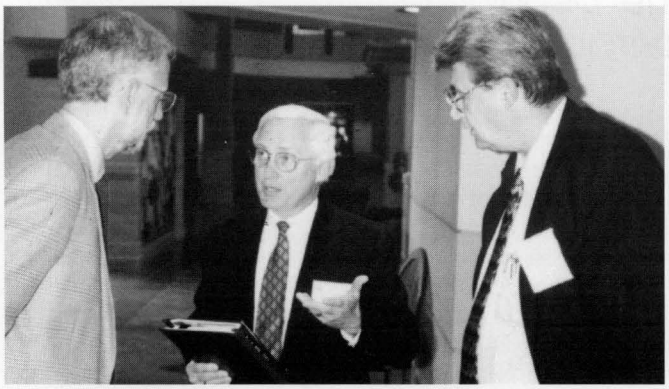
(Note: This is part of a continuing series of articles on the Stockman Institute.)

The fifth annual Stockman Institute Conference was held in November of 1998 at the new Robert G. Buzzard Hall Auditorium on the campus of Eastern Illinois University. Elizabeth J. Hitch, Dean, College of Education and Professional Studies, noted that: "each year, the conference is devoted to addressing a salient issue facing contemporary American Education." This year was no exception, as the conference dealt with both the press for new standards and more rigorous preparation programs for teachers and the need to provide large numbers of new teachers in the next decade. The 1998 conference theme - "Teacher Education Reform Initiatives: Alternative Certification" - attracted a number of participants interested in the topic, a timely one both in the state of Illinois and across the country, one that truly reflects a paradigm shift in professional education certification procedures.

The 1998 Stockman Institute Conference was opened by Dean Liz Hitch and participants were also welcomed by Teshome Abebe, Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs at Eastern. The keynote address - "Getting Serious about Teacher Quality: Implications for Licensing, Certification, and Professional Development" - was delivered by Dr. Barnett Berry, representing the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future. During the second plenary session, chaired by Dr. James Reynolds of the Stockman Institute, Dean Mike Carl, College of Education, Northeastern Illinois University, spoke on "The State of Alternative Certification." Of special interest to participants was an excerpt from Illinois House Bill 452 which notes that: "The State Board of Education, in consultation with the State Teacher Certification Board, shall establish and implement an alternative route to teacher certification programs under which persons who meet the requirements of and successfully complete the program established by this Section shall be issued an initial teaching certificate for teaching in schools in this State." This issue is of very great importance, not only to colleges of education, but also to K-12 professional educators and administrators. A third plenary session (chaired by Dr. Barbara Powell, Stockman Institute Conference Committee) featured Ms. Beth Hanselman, representing the Office of Professional Certification, and was entitled: "The Illinois State Board of Education Perspective on Alternative Certification." Panelists from higher education and K-12 schools then provided a point/counterpoint discussion of topics addressed and issues raised. The panel discussion focused on perspectives from superintendents and higher education. Co-moderators for this session included Mr. John McNary, Superintendent, Regional

Office of Education, and Dr. Brian Reid, Director, Professional Development Schools, Eastern Illinois University. Superintendents participating in the panel discussion included: Dr. Richard Berg, Mattoon Community Unit #2, Dr. Barbara Roberts, Stewardson-Strasburg Community Unit #5A; Dr. Richard Voltz, Sullivan Community Unit #300; and Dr. Ted Wetekamp, Charleston Community Unit #1. Higher education perspectives were presented by: Dean Elizabeth J. Hitch, Eastern Illinois University; Dean Mike Carl, Northeastern Illinois University; and Dean Keith Hillkirk, Southern Illinois University Carbondale.

Responding to questions.



Discussing reform initiatives.

The 1998 Stockman Institute Conference program committee included: Dr. Barbara Powell, chair; Dr. Linda Reven; Dr. Judith Ivarie; and Dr. Elizabeth Wilkins-Canter, with special thanks to Rosemary Harris, administrative assistant. Partners in presentation of this year's conference include: the College of Education and Professional Studies (Elizabeth J. Hitch, Dean); the Eastern Illinois University Foundation (Jon Laible, Executive Officer); the Regional Office of Education (John McNary, Regional Superintendent); the School of Adult and Continuing Education (William C. Hine, Dean); and The Stockman Institute (James Reynolds, Chairperson, Board of Directors). Conference proceedings are being developed and will be available in May of 1999. An extra highlight of this year's conference involved a tour of the new Buzzard Hall, conducted by Dr. Patricia Fewell, Director, Instructional Technology Center.

As part of the Stockman Institute annual conference, the Stockman Board of Directors Meeting, chaired by Elizabeth J. Hitch, Dean, College of Education and Professional Stludies, was also conducted.

Exchanging ideas.

The Stockman Institute continues to thrive and various plans regarding the 1999 agenda were made. Board members stepping down this year include Dr. Judith Ivarie and Dr. Chuck Miller. New board members approved were Sharon Brinkmeyer, Assistant Superintendent, Regional Office of Education; and Todd Lindley, Executive Vice President of Sarah Buish Lincoln Health Foundation. The next meeting of the board will be held on April 30, 1999.

Planning next year's agenda.

Recommendations regarding the topic for the November 1999 Stockman Institute Sixth Annual Conference can be forwarded to Dr. Barbara Powell, Program Chair, College of Education and Professional Studies; William C. Hine, Dean, School of Adult and Continuing Education; Dr. Elizabeth Wilkins-Canter, College of Education and Professional Stlludies; or Dr. Linda Reven, College of Education and Professional Studies at Eastern Illinois University.

Students Thrive in New Program

Gail Lockart

(Gail Lockart has taught in public schools both at the elementary and the middle level for 23 years, and was the Gifted Coordinator in Vandalia. Currently, she is an Associate Professor in the Department of Early Childhood, Elementary, and Middle Level Education. Her research interests focus on integrated teacher education.)

In the fall of 1998, eight Eastern Illinois University Middle School pre-service teachers participated in a unique and innovative program which enabled them to spend more time with students and teachers in public school classrooms. For on-campus instruction, a concentrated effort was made to teach coursework in an integrated fashion. The program was partially funded by the MacArthur Foundation (awarded to eleven universities for special projects) and administered through the Illinois Staet Board of Education; other funds were provided by Eastern's College of Education and Professional Studies.

During the first six weeks of the fall '98 semester, students worked intensively on-campus with their faculty instructor, Dr. Gail Lockart, as they completed twelve hours of in-depth, intensive course work. Students participated actively in the classes by giving individual and group presentations, preparing interdisciplinary teching units, and developing creative academic enrichment and advisory activities.

Students then spent the next eight weeks at one of two sites – Vandalia Middle School in Vandalia, Illinois or Nuttall Middle School in Robinson, Illinois. On-site coordinators included Sandy Peyton (teacher at Vandalia) and Sue Catt (Nuttall principal). EIU students worked closely with a team of teachers at the designated schools and soon took over the major responsibilities of teaching sixth, seventh, and/or eighth grade classes for a period of time. During their experiences, EIU students not only taught classes, but also observed the interactions of middle level school teams.

A daily reflection journal was one method by which Eastern students recorded their experiences. In addition, a video tape was developed to showcase each pre-teacher candidate working in the classroom. Moreover, attending "after-school" functions and becoming an integral part of the daily functioning within these middle schools were a major part of the expectations set forth for EIU students.

Further, EIU students created a notebook which became an integral part of their daily plans. They were responsible for providing daily lesson plans and developing appropriate classroom management, assessment, and differentiation strategies. Daily classroom supervision and conferencing with parents added to the varied experiences of the pre-teacher candidates. EIU students also attended weekly seminars geared toward discussion and reflection of the teaching experience. Items discussed during seminars included discipline, classroom management, assessment, collaborative teaching, diversity, and inclusion.

Students reported that this program offered many experiences and a depth not possible in the traditional practicum. This pilot program models the "true" middle school philosophy of integration. Liz Hitch (Dean of the College of Education and Professional Studies), Mahmood Butt (Chair of Secondary Education and Foundations), and Carol Helwig (Chair of Early Childhood, Elementary, and Middle Level Education) have coordinated the efforts of this project. Plans are currently being made to continue the program into the 1999-2000 school year.

School/University Partnerships Web Site

We invite you to visit Eastern Illinois University's new School/University Partnerships web site at the following address:

http: //139.67.27.251

The site serves as a conduit for information dissemination and is designed to provide links between and among educators and other education and education-related web sites. Contact Brian Reid (cfbdr1@ux1.cts.eiu.edu), Director, School/University Partnerships for more information.

The Tradition Continues

William C. Hine, Dean
School of Adult and Continuing Education

From its very beginning as a Normal School to today, Eastern Illinois University has had a long tradition of providing high quality off-campus education for the P-12 teacher and administrator in the school districts within our region and beyond. The School of Adult and Continuing Education and the College of Education and Professional Studies work closely together to provide a wide array of off-campus credit degree programs, classes, and workshops for the practicing professional educator. Masters degree programs in elementary education, educational administration, community counseling, and school counseling are offered off campus. An undergraduate degree in elementary education is offered off campus as well.

Due to the rapidly changing scene in P-12 education, the School of Adult and Continuing Education, in collaboration wit the college of Education and Professional Stludies, is constantly developing and offering a variety of workshops for school districts and regional offices of education specialized in the latest issues that are impacting P-12 education. The School of Adult and Continuing Edlucation is the largest provider of off-campus credit workshops for practicing teachers and administrators in the state of Illinois and offers more than 150 different workshops per year. The growing demand for current and relevant education for off-campus professional educators increases each year as do workshop courses, thereby providing the practicing professional with multiple opportunities to stay abreast of changes in education. For more information regarding education degree programs, classes, workshops, or off-campus courses, contact William C. Hine, Dean, at 205 Blair Hall, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, IL 61920.

The Next Generation of School & University Partnerships at Eastern Illinois University: Refining the Vision

Brian D. Reid, Director
School/University Partnerships

The Past

For the past several years Eastern has been operating a network of Professional Development Schools throughout central Illinois. These school districts have been working to develop a closer relationship with the College of Education and Professional Studies for the preparation of new teachers and the continued development of inservice teachers. The Professional Development School model is designed to work collaboratively with schools in four main areas; preservice teacher preparation, staff development, action research, and support of children's learning.

The main effort in the 1997-98 school year was to continue the past efforts with regard to the PDS schools, and develop a new structure that would incorporate changes that reflect the changing perspective of partnerships with school. During the 97-98 school year, the Advisory Council (Table 1) met to discuss what partnerships should look like and how they should function. A portion of the summary of the responses to what PDS should look like are in Table 2. Major assumptions were that there should be a range of partnership opportunities for schools and departments and that those who make the greatest commitment should have the loudest voice in determining the policies and actions. As a result of those discussion, the Advisory Council went to work using these responses to develop a set of criteria and activities that schools and departments must meet in order to become partnership schools.

The New Structure

The final product of the Advisory Council was the development of criteria and activities for schools and departments that want to become a part of this new partnership effort. The structure reflects three levels of partnership. The first level are those units that want to be general partnership units, which does not involve any specific commitments, but these units want e-mail newsletters about regional activities and events they may choose to participate in. These schools will continue to practica and student teaching.

The remaining levels are those schools that wish to become very involved in the four parts of PDS and will make specific commitments to the school partnership effort. PDS Level I will be those units that are planning how to make their strategic or school improvements plans reflect the four goals of PDS (preservice teacher preparation, staff development, action research, and support of children's learning). To be a PDS Level I School or Department, the unit is required to have a majority (50+%) of the faculty agree to become a Level I PDS partner, and develop a local advisory council made up of all stakeholders.

Table 1
1997-98 PDS Advisory Council

PUBLIC SCHOOLS:
Annette Haney (Curriculum Director, Centralia)
Ralph Leffler (Principal, Carie Busey, Champaign)
David Carey (Principal, Carl Sandburg/Lerna, Charleston)
Jeannie Walters (Assistant Superintendent, Charleston)
Gary Tucker (Assistant Superintendent, Danville)
Ginger Garner(Curriculum Coordinator, Danville)
(Decatur principals rotate)
David Kidd (Principal, South Shores Elementary School, Decatur)
Debbie Bandy (Principal, Durfee Elementary School, Decatur) and
Mary Durnil (Principal, Muffley Elementary School, Decatur)
Deb Owen (Assistant Superintendent, Effingham)
Linda Brissenden (Principal, East Side Elem., Effingham,)
Les Edwards (Principal, Humbolt Elementary School, Mattoon)

PDS FACILITATORS:
Brian Carey (Centralia)
Bill Fischer, (Effingham)
Mary Greenlaw, (Charleston and Mattoon)
Deanna Riess, (Decatur)
Sandy Schroeder, (Champaign)

EASTERN ILLINOIS DEPARTMENTS:
Mary Ellen Varble (Student Teaching)
Bev Findley (Educational Administration)
John Henry Pommier (Leisure Studies)
Christy Hooser (Special Ed.)
Kevin Hussey (Physical Education)
Barbara Powell (Educational Psychology & Guidance)
Mary Cammin/White (Early Childhood, Elementary, & Middle Level Ed.)
Dawn Van Gunten (Secondary Ed)
Rob Bates (Health Ed.)

ROE REPRESENTATIVE:
Joy Russell (ROE 11)

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS:
Dean Hitch
PDS superintendents
Department Chairs
Pat Fewell - ITC
Veronica Stephen

For example, a PDS school will have representatives from faculty, parents, business, EIU, community and any other groups that are a part of that community. Likewise, an EIU department will be required to develop a similar advisory council that represents schools, ROEs, agencies, faculty, etc. This group will develop a 3-5 year plan for implementing the four PDS objectives. After this plan is developed and approved by the PDS Policy Board, a vote of 75+% of the faculty is required to move to PDS Level II. (See Table 3)

Who Can Participate

Any school in Illinois can join this partnership with Eastern. We welcome any school that wishes to develop a more formal relationship with Eastern. We can work, at some level, with any interested school. However, for practical reason, only those schools that are relatively close can become PDS schools. The PDS relationship requires continuous communication and mutual participation that can only be accomplished through proximity. In addition, each PDS Level site requires an Eastern faculty member willing to take the role of PDS facilitator.

PDS Benefits

One of the most frequently asked questions relates to the benefits to schools and departments. Why should a school participate at the PDS Level? This is a complex question and can be answered at many different levels.

For most, the first benefit will be increased professional development. Over the past few years Eastern has submitted and been funded for a number of grants that have benefited schools. PDS has provided grant funded workshops that benefited our partnership schools on a variety of topics including Language Strategies, Write On Illinois, Conflict Resolution, Alternative Reading Assessment, Cooperative Leaning, Cooperative Learning, Multiple Intelligences, and Integrated Curriculum. In the past year, we have worked with schools districts to assist in the submission of individual Goals 2000 Grants to address objectives within the School Improvement Plans. Currently, we are currently developing a proposal to create a regional consortium to coordinate professional development in the area. Contacts with professional organizations will provide for increased opportunities for conferences and institutes in this area. As well as opportunities for current teachers, we are looking at developing a regional approach to assisting school districts with induction and mentoring programs for new teachers.

In addition to workshops, PDS is working on a number of projects within PDS schools. A major effort is currently underway to assist our first PDS Level I school, Carl Sandburg, on the implementation of a pilot program for Partnership 2000. We are working with the Action Team to plan implementation and evaluation strategies for the program. A second effort is underway in Bottenfield Elementary School (Champaign) to support the continued implementation of multiple Intelligences which began as a Goals 2000 grant written by the school with the help of the PDS facilitator. A new reason for collaboration with eastern stems from new initiative at the state and federal level to support such partnerships.

Perhaps of more interest to teachers will be the partnership grants that should be available later this spring. These grants will provide resources for joint projects between teachers in schools and Eastern faculty. The purpose of these grants will be to support collaborative activities that benefit schools and teacher education programs. Schools that have requested to be partnership sites and PDS schools will be eligible for participation.

A final benefit of becoming a PDS school will be the assignment of a faculty member to that school as the PDS facilitator. As schools become PDS Level I sites, Eastern faculty will be notified of a search for a PDS facilitator. The Building Level Advisory Council will have an opportunity to interview each applicant and provide input for the final decision. This facilitator will become a part of the school community, attend faculty meetings, and serve as the link between the school and Eastern.

Summer 1998 Retreat

In June, 1998, teachers, faculty, principals, and

department chairs attended a retreat that addressed issues related to the future of PDS. This groups generated several ideas about directions that PDS should take (Table 4). These are ideas that will be followed up in future partnership plans. In additional discussion, a proposal was developed to work with schools to develop induction and mentoring programs. Conversations are currently underway to develop such a proposal.

The Future

The current priority for School & university Partnerships is the disseminating information about the new structure to schools and departments. Schools and departments will then decide how they will function in this new structure. Anyone wishing more information should contact Dr. Brian Reid at Eastern (217-581-2524).

Table 2
Structure Response Excerpts
(11/18/97)

How should the decisions be made that affect PDS (from your perspective)?
Cooperatively - collectively - collaboratively
policies: advisory council
facilitator and director must be visible in schools
building level: CBLC, facilitator and principal based on policies

What are the criteria for becoming/remaining a PDS site? What should a PDS school do? (This would become the evaluation of PDS sites)
building vote - at least, 75% of teachers agreeing
highly competent staff - master teachers (board certified?)
willing to host on-site course (space, time, other)
plan, implement and financially support joint staff development
willingness to advocate for PDS to rest of district
Excellence permeates building
open atmosphere and communication
support system in place for positive change and growth
willing to commit to the PDS committee professional time and staff
full participant in evaluation (formative) and ACT on recommendations
provide logistical support for facilitators (space, access to phone, copier, etc.)
each building must have a community based leadership council (parents, teachers, facilitator, principal) that guides school decisions
support for best practice - a process - searching for excellence-change-renewal
willing to have Eastern participate in school decisions (student teaching placements, staffing, staff development, etc.)

What are the criteria for Eastern? What tasks must Eastern complete? (This would become the evaluation of Eastern's participation)
pursue NCATE standards for PDS teacher preparation
plan, implement and support college courses in PDS sites
be willing to change based on feedback
more collaboration - not just talk
active administrative and faculty support
plan, implement and financially support joint staff development
willingness to advocate for PDS in departments
Excellence permeates college
constant positive search for best practice
open atmosphere and communication
support system in place for positive change and growth
must value input from schools
full participant in evaluation (formative) and ACT on recommendations
coordinate student teaching placements for maximum of 3 placements for facilitators
allow PDS personnel to participate in decisions on Eastern's hiring, program content, course content, teaching approaches, practica, methods, etc.

Table 3
Criteria For Participation

PUBLIC SCHOOL BUILDING SITES

Partnership School

Activities:

Building hosts preservice students

Benefits:

Electronic newsletter (access to information about grants, professional development activities)

Participation in general partnership activities

Level I Professional Development School

Initial Criteria:

At least 30% of the teachers must meet the criteria to have a student teacher

Certified staff vote to participate by building (minimum 51%)

Activities:

Develop PDS Advisory Council (parents, elected teachers, union, administrator, EIU PDS facilitator, and other community/business members) to act as advisory group on PDS planning and implementation.

Collaborate with the PDS Advisory Council to develop a building-based, 3-5 year plan (a part of, or attached to School Improvement Plans)to address NCATE Critical Attributes and four main functions of PDS (preservice teacher preparation, staff development, research, and support of children's learning). This plan will include a mission statement, goals and objectives, activities, best practices, resources, evaluation, and accountability.

Building hosts preservice students (placed by EIU faculty, principal and facilitator)

Develop plan for mentor/cooperating teacher selection, training and evaluation process

Agree to written one-year agreement approved by school board and Advisory Council

Benefits:

Electronic newsletter (invitation to participate in grants, professional development activities)

Representation on Partnership Advisory Council

Technical assistance to develop PDS plan and related topics

Level II Professional Development School

Continuing Criteria:

Certified staff vote to participate by building (minimum 75%)

Plan for meeting NCATE Critical Attributes in place and functioning

Advisory Council in place and serves as advisory body for the building's PDS site plan.

Plan for mentor/cooperating teacher selection, training and evaluation process

Activities:

Principal/building commits resources (matching funds, office space/logistical support for facilitators, staff development days, substitutes)

Building consults with advisory council for decision making

Building willing to accept student teachers equal to 30% of building teachers per year

Building collects and provides PDS with data on school

Principal attends annual planning retreat

Building annually renews agreement approved by school board and Advisory Council

Building provides representative for PDS Advisory Council

EASTERN DEPARTMENTS WITH TEACHER CERTIFICATION

Partner Department:

Activities:

Place preservice teachers in partnership or PDS schools

Benefits:

Electronic newsletter (access to information about grants, professional development activities)

Participation in general partnership activities

Level I PDS Department:

Entrance Criteria:

Faculty vote to participate by department in secret ballot (minimum 51%)

Place preservice teachers in PDS sites

Activities:

Department develops advisory council (elected faculty, union representative, K-12 personnel, ROE representatives, ISBE, community, EIU students, etc.). Collaborate with the PDS Advisory Council to develop a building-based, 3-5 year plan to address NCATE Critical Attributes and four main functions of PDS (preservice teacher preparation, staff development, research, and support of children's learning). This plan will include a mission statement, goals and objectives, activities, best practices, resources, evaluation, and accountability.

Agree to initial written one-year agreement approved by faculty and Advisory Council

Benefits:

Electronic newsletter (invitation to participate in grants, professional development activities)

Non-voting representation in Partnership Advisory Council

Level II: Continuing Criteria for PDS Departments

Continuing Criteria:

Faculty vote to participate by department in secret ballot (minimum 75%)

Department-based, advisory council (elected faculty, union representative, K-12 personnel, ROE representatives, ISBE, community, EIU students, etc.) in place and functioning as advisory body for the department's partnership and PDS site plan.

Develop and use mentor/supervising teacher selection, training and evaluation process for those supervising field experiences

Activities:

Department pursues national accreditation of professional organization

Chair consults with advisory council for decision making

Department coordinates activities with PDS schools only through network

Department provides PDS with data on department

Chair encourages/rewards faculty to spend significant time in schools

Department provides representative for PDS Advisory Council

Department chair attends annual retreat

Agrees to written agreement renewed annually approved by faculty and Advisory Council

Table 4
Retreat Brainstorming Results

Group 1
All methods classes have school component
After school programs - student needs are met as will the EIU preservice students-community-based
Service Learning - focus on product
Restructuring the school day - extending
Beginning teacher mentor programs

Group 2
preservice education
collaboration with adaptive educators (leisure, speech, /language, Psych)
More inclusion and collaboration - LD resource
Public school teachers teaching at the university level
master teacher appreciation dinner
recertification process
PDS newsletter
on-site classrooms

Group 3
Formal sequence of practica & clinical experiences beginning sophomore year - developed collaboratively and taught on site
Collaboratively developed professional development plan with learning support teams
Coordinated efforts for collaborative inquiry where schools vote on projects to be conducted
Collaborative inquiry workshops to improve understanding and implementation
Increased parent and community involvement including EIU

Group 4
Co-teaching units in schools (university faculty, public school teachers, preservice)
- Increase university faculty presence in schools
- testing new initiatives - classroom-based research
- Preservice/inservice learning

Developing pre-service multidisciplinary teams for field experiences
- collaboration across departments
- increasing services and attention to public school students

Student support programs
- Provide socio-emotional support for children
- Parent education
- Educating preservice/inservice teachers on key needs

Collaborative study groups for public school and university faculty and preservice teachers
- Continued growth of all participants
- Building collaborative efforts from new knowledge

Group 5
School culture - dealing with diversity
- cultural
- student learning level
- school working in active manner to prevent school violence
- using wrap around services as part of classroom activities

Teacher renewal
- EIU staff working with other subject areas (sped - Soc Studies)
- Public/ROE in EIU classrooms/committees
- Connection between EIU grad and continuing education offering the five year renewal process to board certification

Action research to contribute to practice/validation
- outcome-based for teachers (using other than IGAP)
- Adaptive behavior scales (update)

Parents as partners in education
- training for student teachers
- teachers

On-Site programs
- Block 1 process/product oriented
- pre-ST Induction practicum experience
- Smaller learning community of student teachers with consistent cooperating teacher and EIU staff
- Extending the school day

Group 6
Parent program lead by EIU, school, ROE, students
- Child development
- technology
- resources - books, videos

Action research
- Use IGAP "needs" devise strategies
- assessments involve EIU, classroom, students

Afterschool program involvement of EIU
- leisure, recreation, nutrition, technology, etc.

High School nutrition
- secondary, middle school
- Powerpoint

Awareness of resources - Media Center - books

Eastern Education Journal

Manuscript Guidelines, Editorial Procedures, and Submission Requirements

The **Eastern Education Journal** seeks articles representing contemporary issues in education. Manuscripts should focus on concepts, research, or practice. Research summaries, program descriptions, book reviews, and original points of view are encouraged. Journal issues, published during the spring of each year, may include thematic and nonthematic sections.

MANUSCRIPT GUIDELINES

Cover Page: Include the following information on a separate sheet of paper.

- Title of manuscript and date of submission.
- Author name; institutional affiliation and mailing address (include **street address** and **nine-digit zipcode**); telephone numbers. Provide the same information if more than one author is involved.
- A statement as to whether or not the article has been previously published or is under consideration by another publication.

Length:

- A definitive abstract of 50 to 75 words must accompany the manuscript.
- Manuscripts should be limited to 3000 words or less. No footnotes.

Typing:

- Double space all text, including references with 1 - inch margins all around.
- Place illustrations, tables, charts, and/or figures at the end of the manuscript on separate pages. Make reference to their placement within your manuscript.

Style:

- Editorial style and references must follow guidelines set in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 4th Edition.

Form:

- Hard Copy: Send five copies of the manuscript complete with cover pages. Do not include any identifying information on the abstract or the manuscript.
- Computer Disk: Send a disk along with your hard copies (MIcrosoft Word for IBM or Mac).

Other:

- Photos/Autobiographical Information: Include a brief autobiographical sketch and a photograph of author(s) involved.

Deadline:

- Manuscripts are due on 1 June of each year.
- Articles accepted for publication are approved by a minimum of four members of the Editorial Board.

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Veronica P. Stephen, Editor
Eastern Education Journal
Eastern Illinois University
600 Lincoln Ave.
Charleston, IL 61920
email: cfvps@eiu.edu

Eastern Illinois University
College of Education & Professional Studies-00111
600 Lincoln Avenue
Charleston, IL 61920-3099

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